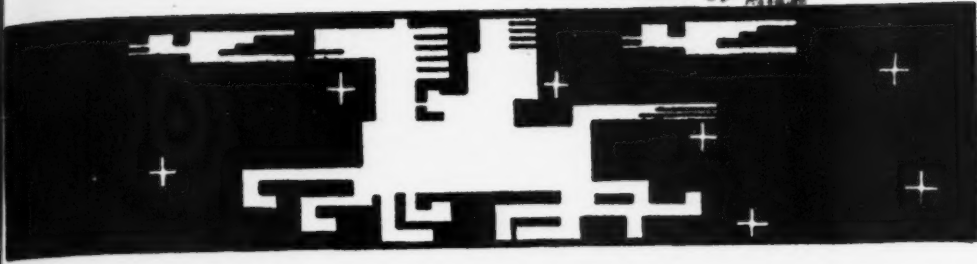


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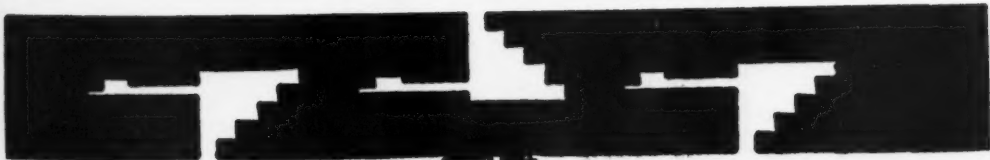
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JOHANNE LUISE HEIBERG

FROM THE PAINTING BY ELISABETH JERICHAU
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THE AMERICAN-SCANDINAVIAN REVIEW

VOLUME XXXIV

JUNE, 1946

NUMBER 2

Johanne Luise Heiberg

BY HANNA ASTRUP LARSEN

A HUNDRED years ago Denmark, though a small country even before the amputation of 1864, with a language not understood outside of Scandinavia, possessed a theater that was considered one of the best, if not the best, in Europe.

The bright particular star of the Royal Theater in Copenhagen, the idol of the common people, the honored friend of bishops and cabinet members, the artist whose fame had spread abroad, whom visiting kings and potentates demanded to see, was Johanne Luise Heiberg. As she was the greatest actress Denmark has ever produced, so her autobiography is perhaps the most remarkable work of memoirs in the Danish language. It is indication enough of the importance attached to it that during the occupation years a fourth edition* should have been published under the editorship of the historian Professor Aage Friis aided by a staff of experts. To the three volumes already printed they have added a fourth, containing matter struck out by the author or one of her friends and printed now from the original manuscript.

The story in its bare outline is amazing. No origin could have been more lowly than that of Johanne Luise Pätges. She was born, November 22, 1812, in a poor street in Copenhagen. Both her parents were Germans; the mother was a Jewess. She and an elder sister, when they were twelve and fourteen years old, had run away from intoler-

* *Et Liv gjenoplevet i Erindringen. Af Johanne Luise Heiberg. 4. reviderede Udgave ved Aage Friis under Medvirken af Elisabeth Hude, Robert Neiliendam og Just Rahbek. 4 Bind. København: Gyldendal. 1944.*

able conditions in their home in Frankfurt, had begged their way, barefooted, until they met kind families who pitied them and took them into service. Henriette, the younger, came with her family to Denmark. There she met and married Christian Heinrich Pätges, who had run away from Cologne to escape military service.

Pätges set up a tavern, but he imbibed too much of the wine he was supposed to serve to his customers. One of the most horrible memories of little "Hanne's" childhood was how she and her sister cowered in a corner while the father in a drunken fury tried to smash a chest of drawers in which the mother kept her savings, and ended by taunting her with her Jewish birth. When sober, he had an ingratiating manner, and a poetic temperament. He was a devout Catholic and grieved because, according to the law at that time, children of mixed marriages had to be brought up in the State Church. He sometimes persuaded Hanne to go with him to his church and surreptitiously sprinkled her with holy water.

It was from her mother Hanne inherited her energy, will power, and practical ability. When the father was unable to support them, and the family sank deeper and deeper into the most wretched poverty, the mother constituted herself the breadwinner of the family. She made and sold certain German delicatessen, and in summer she set up a booth in the amusement park, Dyrehaven. The latter she kept up even when her daughter was at the height of her fame.

There were nine children, but the older ones went out to work so early that Hanne, who was the next to the youngest, scarcely knew any of them except the youngest sister, Amalie. When Hanne was eight years old, the two girls were admitted to the famous ballet school of Copenhagen. Poorly dressed as they were, unaccustomed to polite usages, unable to speak Danish properly—never having gone to school—the Pätges children were pariahs. The other children withdrew from the contamination of their presence. Hanne shed many bitter tears. But in spite of all handicaps, her talent was noticed by her instructors; she was soon entrusted with little solo dances, and before many years with small speaking parts.

At home the frequenters of her father's tavern would sometimes ask him to bring in his daughters of whose skill and charm he had boasted, and sometimes he made them dance on the table in the public room. Hanne felt this as an intense humiliation. But one evening a young man jumped up from the corner where he was sitting, tore the girls away from their tormentors, and administered such a rebuke to the father that the practice was never repeated. This young man, whom she calls Herman—his real name was J. G. Harboe—became the

friend, protector, and teacher of her childhood. Unfortunately, he conceived a passion for his young protégée which was so tyrannical that it became a torture to her. Fru Heiberg admits—with compunction for her ingratitude—that his death when she was about sixteen was a relief.

Among the persons who befriended the little girl was Jonas Collin, director of the Royal Theater, and the kind providence of needy actors. (It was he who took the boy Hans Christian Andersen into his home.) Collin arranged that Hanne should have her home and live with the actress Mme. Anna Wexschall. The change “from darkness to light” was overwhelming. It released the ebullient gayety in her. For the first time she was young. She danced around the house, romped with the children, and threw herself on Mme. Wexschall with caresses and endearments. She soon became the chief attraction of the Wexschall circle, and turned the heads of the men she met there.

Photography was non-existent in those days, and the various drawings and paintings of Fru Heiberg are so different that it is hard to form a definite picture of what she looked like in her youth. We learn that she was slender and dark, of a “southern” type, and that she had large, slightly aquiline features. But all this gives no idea of her charm, which was probably due to grace and vivacity more than formal beauty.

Some years earlier Hanne had met her future husband Johan Ludvig Heiberg. She was only twelve when she played the part of the young girl Trine in his vaudeville *Aprilsnarrene* (April Fools) to his great satisfaction. Heiberg at that time was thirty-four and was becoming known both as a literary critic and as the author of fresh, clean, typically Danish vaudevilles. (Some of them are played to this day. The one-act farce *Nei* had its 287th performance in 1942. *Aprilsnarrene* was given its 274th performance in 1938.) Heiberg had been lecturer in Danish at Kiel University for three years, but had returned to Denmark declaring that he would rather be dead in Copenhagen than alive in Kiel.

Heiberg's mother was Fru Thomasine Gyllembourg, the pioneer woman author in Denmark. She took a fancy to the little Jomfru Pätges, and when changed circumstances made it necessary that she should move from the Wexschall's, Fru Gyllembourg invited the girl to live with her. Heiberg had already made her a formal offer of marriage, which she had refused. As he came every day to his mother's, they were constantly thrown together, and the three people of different ages formed a happy circle. The talk of the two elders and the books Heiberg read aloud opened a new world of knowledge to Hanne. She adapted herself readily to the fastidious refinement of Fru Gyllem-

bourg's home where, unlike the Wexschall's, guests were few and carefully selected.

Heiberg resumed his wooing with a delicacy and self-restraint which Hanne had not found in her other admirers, and in July 1931, a few months before her nineteenth birthday, they were married. Whether she was actually in love with him may be doubted, but she was deeply grateful for his devotion. They were very congenial and grew more so, as her mind developed under his tutelage. They shared a sense of humor, and again and again Fru Heiberg writes what a joy it is to be with some one to whom you can talk about everything, sure of being understood, or be silent if you prefer.

The Heibergs naturally were much in demand in Copenhagen society and they gathered a circle of distinguished friends in their own home. But their greatest pleasure was in the summer vacations, when they would drive around in the country in a small carriage, roughing it at country inns. Heiberg liked horses and liked to drive. An instance of the primitive conditions that met them and Fru Heiberg's sovereign way of handling them is her amusing story of a summer they spent at Hellebaek. They drove up to the door of the inn quite casually announcing that they wanted to stay six weeks. The landlady was dumbfounded. No one ever stayed there. But didn't they keep an inn? Oh, yes, but it was mostly for men who came in for a drink of an evening, and her old man took care of that. But didn't they at least have a room? It turned out that they did have two rooms and an entry on the ground floor with windows looking out across the Sound to "Kullen" on the Swedish coast. But the beds! "Heiberg would die" if he had to sleep under the heavy feather bolsters. Didn't they have some dry hay? Yes, they had. Fru Heiberg went across the road to the country store and bought ticking, tore it into proper lengths, and set the landlady to stitching one bag while she herself made the other. These she stuffed with hay and spread them over the feather beds. For covering she requisitioned four horse blankets. The sympathetic reader is positively relieved to learn that "the bed linen was all right."

Another trip to the store produced a wash basin and pitcher, wine glasses, and flower vases. Then she had to teach the landlady how to cook and serve dinner. When Heiberg returned from his stroll, all was ready; he pronounced his wife "a little witch," and declared that he liked nothing better than the smell of fresh hay added to his "favorite perfume of the horse stable." They laughed at the contrast with the palatial home of their friend *Etatsraad* J. Th. Suhr where, as usual, they had spent the first month of their vacation.

These vacations in natural surroundings, alone with her husband, became more and more necessary to Fru Heiberg as the demands on her at the theater grew more staggering, though even while she went on her lonely walks in the country she studied her roles for the coming season. In the most active period of her life she learned on an average nine new roles in a season of nine months (in one year she learned fifteen) besides, of course, playing in the old parts that belonged to her accustomed repertoire. The public clamored for Fru Heiberg. Playwrights wrote for her and were indignant if she refused to play the parts they had designed for her.

"Fortune was in love with me," she writes, "and everything I touched was successful. Every opposition, no matter from what motive, was borne down by the favorable wind of my luck. Every new role revealed a new aspect of my development and surprised the public, and these surprises made people await every new role of mine with tense expectation. The interest with which the public at that time followed every new offering in literature or on the stage can hardly be conceived in this day. Literature, art, and the theater were the all-absorbing subjects. True, political life had begun to stir here at home after the July Revolution, but the movement had not penetrated to the broader public, which still clung to its old interests. Political life was still in its swaddling-clothes. Everybody minded his own affairs and no one thought the government of the country depended on him or that he had any responsibility outside of his own particular work. In art and literature the educated public found rest, recreation, and instruction. It was a necessity of life, just as much as daily bread. As a result of this serious interest in art, the artists who had won general approval were regarded as a sort of national property of which all were proud. A premiere at the theater was an event that interested all classes. The entire court usually attended."

The actors of the Royal Theater held a very dignified position. They were engaged for life—after an apprenticeship—on a fixed salary and were entitled to a pension. They were actually government officials. (Incidentally, Fru Heiberg had the same salary as other leading women and men. The rewards of stardom were not monetary.) The theater was under the personal authority of the king, who was appealed to for special favors such as travelling stipends or to settle quarrels between the actors. When Fru Heiberg returned to the theater after her marriage, the burning question was whether she should be listed on the programs as *Madame* or *Fru*. The latter title was the more "honorific" and had never been applied to an actress before, but as a professor's wife she was entitled to it. The paternal King Fred-

erik VI decided she should be called *Fru*. Later all actresses were addressed so.

"Rightly or wrongly," Fru Heiberg continues, "the public chose me among the rather large number of artists then at the theater as its particular favorite and this partiality became a kind of idolatry which sometimes frightened me. Applause in the theater as well as flowers and presents sent to my home, besides anonymous presents and half-crazy love letters, were the order of the day. If I appeared in the street, people followed me to get a glimpse of me. High and low tried in every way to get in touch with me. They imitated me, not only on the stage, but in life. The style of my dress and my hair was copied by a host of women who made themselves ridiculous by uncritically modelling themselves on me. . . . When I heard this applause, constantly saw my fame acclaimed in the newspapers, received in my home these verses, flowers, letters that called me a divine creature, then indeed a better and saner self in my breast told me that all this was exaggerated, and sometimes I felt a sense of shame which prevented me from showing these feverish outpourings even to my family. But at other times a vain devil would whisper in my ear that after all there must be something of truth in it, since they all said so, and a certain arrogance developed in me—not that I became conceited; I had too much common sense for that—but like a young colt I revelled in this pleasant pasturage without ever thinking that winter might come. God knows what would have become of me, if in His mercy He had not set me among people who furnished excellent corrective for any kicking over the traces that my arrogance might have tempted me to."

Fru Heiberg was fortunate in that her early career coincided with a blossoming of literature in Denmark. Among Danish authors her favorite, besides her husband, was Henrik Hertz, whose *Svend Dyrings Hus* is one of the enduring classics of the Danish stage. Among foreign authors she liked the English and French rather than the German. One of her most successful parts was that of Lady Teazle in Sheridan's *School for Scandal*. But of all dramatists Shakespeare had the greatest fascination for her. The lightness and delicacy of Viola's part in *Twelfth Night* made it especially congenial. She played also Imogene in *Cymbeline*, Helena in *All's Well That Ends Well*, Celia in *As You Like It*, and others. Juliet she had played at sixteen. When she came to the task again twenty years later, it absorbed and thrilled her beyond measure. She felt she was committing idolatry with the part, and some Nemesis would strike her. It did.

On the opening night a fire broke out in the theater during the third act, and it was with difficulty she finished Juliet's monologue. But that

was not the worst. Her Romeo was the young actor Michael Wiebe, whose talent Fru Heiberg had helped to develop, and who became one of the shining lights of the Danish stage. His lyric-poetic temperament corresponded with her own. He had a quiet glow and fervor, a gift of making even the simplest phrase significant, vibrant with feeling—"without sentimentality" she adds. He had played Romeo before, and had looked forward to playing it with her. What then was her horror when, instead of the usual perfect harmony and interplay, she found herself opposite an actor who did not respond to her fire, but spoke his lines in a dry, flat manner that brought not a ripple of applause from the audience.

What had happened?

The Royal Theater had lately acquired a new actor, a young man by name F. L. Höedt, who saw it as his mission to modernize the Danish stage and introduce a realistic style of acting. He had begun with Wiebe, ridiculing his manner and parodying him in a group of their friends. Sensitive as Wiebe was, he could not bear being laughed at. It had a numbing effect on him. It was five years before he got his courage back and announced that now he had thought out Romeo's part afresh and believed he could act it. But, alas! it was still Shakespeare according to Höedt, and failed to stir the audience. This was the cruellest disappointment in Fru Heiberg's stage career. "When as Juliet in the fifth act I had stuck the dagger into my breast, I could no longer restrain my tears," she writes.

Although no indiscretion has ever been alleged against her, and there is no indiscretion in her autobiography, it is generally held in Denmark that Fru Heiberg was deeply in love with Michael Wiebe. Perhaps there were forces in her nature that the tranquil companionship with Heiberg could not satisfy and that reached out to her young fellow actor. Wiebe, who was happily married to the sweetheart of his youth, seems to have felt for Fru Heiberg an adoring affection, as for an elder sister and superior artist.

Be that as it may, Fru Heiberg gave her husband a passionate loyalty, which was soon put to the test in a very trying situation. In 1849, J. N. Madvig, Minister of Church and Education, appointed Heiberg director of the Royal Theater, a position which it would seem he had excellent qualifications for filling. But Höedt organized an opposition among the actors which, according to Fru Heiberg's account, amounted to positive sabotage, preventing Heiberg from showing what he could do, and ultimately forcing him out. There are, of course, many contradictory accounts of this Seven Years' War (1849-56) on the Danish stage. It seems, however, that even the actors who lent themselves to

Höedt's machinations did not have a high opinion of him as an actor, and his career on the stage of the Royal Theater was short-lived.

During the "War," while the newspapers were attacking Heiberg, they sometimes took a fling at his wife, and almost for the first time in her life, she was criticized in the press. It was said that she had lost the old simplicity, that she over-elaborated her roles, and some were even uncivil enough to say she sugared them. The public, however, was with her, and she worked beyond her strength to fill in when other actors failed. . . . When she returned after a severe illness, she was received with the wildest enthusiasm. The crowd that couldn't get into the theater gathered in the square, Kongens Nytorv, crying, "Long live Fru Heiberg!", and it was only by stealing away quietly that she escaped having the horses unharnessed and her carriage pulled by her admirers—as had been done once before. When her husband resigned, she asked for a year's leave of absence, and when she came back there was again the same enthusiasm. The flower shops advertised "Bouquets for the return of Fru Heiberg." But she had no heart for it any more. "Theatrical art is a happy art," she says. The struggle she had gone through, the strain of many years, had told too heavily on her. Then came Heiberg's illness and death in 1860. After that time she still continued, though with a great effort, for four years, but on June 2, 1864, she made her last appearance, playing Heiberg's *Elverhøi* for the 127th time.

"When the one we love is injured, persecuted," Fru Heiberg wrote, "then our love sends out new, fresh shoots. The peace, the quiet confidence in which it had lived is interrupted, and a fresh upwelling, a renewal of the love relation grows up. It is like a stream that has run its quiet, accustomed course but now meets an obstruction which changes the still waters into a rushing stream that makes its way with renewed violence and force."

It was chiefly to defend Heiberg's course that she had begun in 1855 or 1856 (the date is uncertain) her *Memoirs*, a work that spread over many years. She rushed to the defense of her husband when Edvard Brandes wrote in *Det Nittende Aarhundrede* for April 1875 an article entitled "A Turning Point in the History of the Danish Theater," in which he violently attacked Heiberg's management and lauded Höedt. Fru Heiberg was indignant, especially in view of the fact that Edvard Brandes, who was nine years old when the theatrical War ended, had never even seen Höedt on the stage. In her *Memoirs* she devoted some space to picking to pieces Brandes's theories. There could be no such thing, she said, as a school of acting. There were schools of dramatic writing, and a new style of acting could come only with a new style of

writing for the stage. The function of the actor was not to create, but to interpret the author. There had been plenty of realistic action in the old theater, she averred, when the works presented called for it.

Fru Heiberg had always regretted that she had no children, and in her youth had sometimes threatened to adopt seven—she never would have only one. When, a few months after her husband's death, the opportunity came to adopt three motherless girls, sisters, she regarded it literally as a godsend and rejoiced that they came to fill her empty life. The experiment turned out very successfully.

But the theater called once more. In 1867 Fru Heiberg accepted a position as instructor at the Royal Theater, the first woman to hold such a position in Denmark. She brought to the task the same ardor and devotion to the cause of dramatic art that she had given her own roles when acting. It fell to her lot to introduce the great Norwegian dramatists in Denmark. She staged Björnson's *Maria Stuart* and Ibsen's *The Pretenders*. Her enthusiasm for *The Pretenders* was shared at first only by the young Emil Poulsen, who had his first great character part in Bishop Nickolas, but the performance left no doubt in the minds of any competent judges that this early work by Ibsen was a supremely great drama. She must have impressed Ibsen himself, for he allowed her to cut out the last sentence in the play, the line spoken by Hakon, "Skule Bardsson was God's stepchild on earth," and substitute as a conclusion the words of Skule's sister, Sigrid, "God has no step-children."

The last play Fru Heiberg staged was her old love *Romeo and Juliet*. Emil Poulsen, who was the Romeo, tells how at a rehearsal Fru Heiberg pushed aside Agnes Dehn, the Juliet, and spoke the monologue with the vial of poison in such a way that the old lady in coat and bonnet seemed to vanish, and he saw only Romeo's loving, unhappy young bride.

Seven years as instructor rounded out Fru Heiberg's stage career. When she resigned it was due in part to physical weariness, in part to the fact that the old theater where she had spent most of her life from her eighth year was to be razed to give way to a new building.

Her last years were spent quietly with her adopted daughters and a small circle of old friends. She died in Copenhagen, December 21, 1890, and was buried in the grave of her husband and his mother in Holmens Churchyard.

The autobiography was published the year after her death. As she had foreseen, it whirled up a storm of protests, especially from the families of the actors implicated in her account of the theatrical war. She was no longer there to answer them. The editors of the present

edition, the first scholarly edition of a work that has long since become a Danish classic, admit that Fru Heiberg's account of the Seven Years' War is colored by her sympathies. For the earlier part of the book they find that she has trusted to her memory, there are lapses in accuracy, especially in dates and quotations, but nothing to cast doubts on her essential veracity. It is the honest self-revelation of a great actress and a great woman.

Hanna Astrup Larsen, for thirty-three years Editor of The American-Scandinavian Review, died before the publication of this essay.

Perilous Dreams

BY HOLGER DRACHMANN

Translated from the Danish by CHARLES WHARTON STORK

The banquet was ended,
And hushed was the room;
Where *she* had been singing,
The keys were all dumb.
Within them was hidden
A slumbering tone;
She could have awaked them.
All that now was gone.

In their sconces the torches
Already burned low,
They tinted each glass with
A tremulous glow.
'Twas here that your lip sucked
The life-pulsing red;
To me now that glass is
But stony and dead.

O could you but come to
Me now as of yore,
I would set out the wine on
The table once more;
Would kindle new torches
To shine on our feast,
With you at the table head,
I as your guest.

You would sing to the music's
Billowing sway,
While I sat at your feet till
The glimmer of day.
I would carry you home with
Your face to my face,
If you died not ere then of
Too sweet an embrace.

The banquet was ended,
And hushed was the room.
A dust-covered instrument
Stood in the gloom.
O shut the black lid
'Tis a coffin, I deem!—
Ah, thanks be to God:
'Twas a dream, 'twas a dream!



Left to Right: 1. Colonel Hans Helgesen (1793-1858). 2. Major General Fr. A. Schleppegrell (1792-1850), Slain in the Battle of Isted. 3. Colonel V. H. F. A. Læssøe (1811-1850), Slain in the Battle of Isted. 4. Lieutenant General G. K. Kroch (1785-1860)

The Isted Lion Epilogue

THE RETURN OF THE ISTED LION to Denmark from German captivity by the American army was recorded in a previous issue of the REVIEW. The present illustrations record the epilogue, the return of the four medallions which once decorated the granite base on which the lion stood, which were found in Kiel by the British army and presented to King Christian on December 19th, 1945.



Nordisk Pressfoto

King Christian X Thanks the British Army



The Bishop Hill Collection

Breaking the Prairie

A Centennial of Swedish Pioneers

BY CONRAD BERGENDOFF

HOW AENEAS THE SON OF ANCHYSES left ancient Troy and after many difficulties landed on a new shore to begin the history of Rome became the theme of one of the world's great poems, Virgil's Aeneid. In more modern times the story of the Pilgrim Fathers who laid the foundations of a new nation on a new continent has become a subject for poet and orator. The migration of peoples fires the imagination and touches the emotions of any generation which reflects on the birth of something new in human experience. It is not only the distress and peril of individuals who make the pilgrimage which awakens the interest of the thoughtful, but the sense of something significant taking place, something heralding the passing of one age and the coming of another.

America is, above all nations, a new coast on which recurring waves of immigration have dashed, bringing cargoes of foreign peoples and strange cultures. Naturally, the first comers have left the deepest impress on the imagination of succeeding generations, for in them was a prophecy, a symbol, of what was to follow. But attempts to explain American civilization and American culture in terms of New England or Virginia, New York or Philadelphia, have proved inadequate. The new wine which poured into the bottles of the older settlements, as the streams of immigration grew, cracked and broke the traditional forms

of life. A newer theory of interpreting America grew up with the emphasis on the frontier. Here was a theory that accounted for more of the facts. But it too proved defective insofar as it thought of the frontier as an extension only of the older communities. True, the older colonies sought to draw their lines ever westward to the horizon, and would have liked to stake out Western Reserves, each of them. But the great valley of the Mississippi, with its tributaries of the Ohio and the Missouri, was too vast for mere overflows from the original states. New waves of European pilgrims passed swiftly by, or bypassed altogether, the coastal regions where American life first took root. Emerson and Washington Irving, manor house or meeting house, were not a part of their heritage. They came with something new to America, and they filled the growing cities and the spreading farms of the Middle West. He who seeks to understand American life and civilization of the nineteenth century needs to study European movements of the eighteenth as well as American colonial history of the seventeenth century. Plymouth Rock is but one of the foundation stones of the New World.

Reflections of this kind underlie the plans of those who are looking forward to a centennial of Swedish Pioneers in the Midwest, in 1948. For it is about a century ago that small groups began to leave the ancient home in the North, feeling their way across the Atlantic and exploring the western wilderness for sites of future homes. As scouts who lead the way they sent back reports to the homeland, and soon, towards the end of the century, the migration assumed the dimensions of an exodus of a people. Before the movement had subsided, a million and a quarter persons had trekked from their homes in Sweden to the land in the West. Can it be that there is not here a theme for a saga? No Rome is here the result of their migration, but a Virgil could surely find materials in the events of that century for a modern epic.

Who were they? Why did they go? Whither did they go? What became of them? Such are the questions which call for an answer as we look back on a hundred years of a resettlement of Swedish men and women. In many cases the records are at hand, describing the hard conditions of peasant life in Sweden. They tell of the hardy adventurers, of their letters back, of the effect of their golden reports from the new western world. There are the documents of the American financed emigration societies, seeking foreign, cheap labor for the boom industries or the free lands of the post Civil War days. "America fever" was a disease, almost, and it reached epidemic proportions. The story now belongs to history. But it is not so far in the past but it can still be studied. A centennial observance will be more than a commemoration. It can throw new light on social problems. The cousins

and second cousins of the children of the American immigrants today have built the modern Sweden, with its democracy and culture—"the most civilized country in the world" some non-Swedish visitors have called it. What have the American cousins done to further American democracy? And may the influence of America on those at home have had something to do with modern Sweden? It's an interesting problem for the sociologist.

But the Midwest Centennial Pioneer observance is more concerned with what happened in America—and is still happening. Not only are records still available. The evidence is at least in part not far to seek for him who asks "what became of this migration of a people?" Only the scholar can trace today the course of the stream of the Delaware Swedes of the seventeenth century, as it disappeared in the cultural milieu of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Delaware. The modern movement can still be identified, in Illinois, Minnesota, Iowa, Michigan, Kansas, Nebraska. There are the buildings and farms, the factories and business establishments, the schools and churches and philanthropic institutions which they founded. Certain cities bear unmistakable impress of their presence—Chicago, Minneapolis and St. Paul, Rockford, Moline, Rock Island, Des Moines, Kansas City, Omaha, and Detroit. And in between lie the great plains where Swedish farmers have been the first to break the soil. They lived in sod houses once. Now the rural landscape shows the finest of homes, and machinery does the work the pioneers did by hand. Senators and governors have come from these homes in city and on farm, leaders in education and religion, business men, inventors, manufacturers, men and women in all the professions. What happened to those bewildered strangers in the New World, bringing all their belongings with them in their hand baggage, to transform them from "poor Swedes" to respected citizens of their communities and nations? Only fragments of the saga have yet been told.

But why 1948? The proposed centennial will center around this year for a definite reason. There were, of course, many Swedish immigrants in America before 1848. Gustav Unonius had come in 1841 and begun his experiment at Pine Lake, himself becoming ordained as an Episcopalian clergyman because he despaired of ministers coming from Sweden to care for the Lutherans lost in the woods of Wisconsin. The celebrated Olof Gustaf Hedstrom had been in America since 1825 and after 1845 had ministered to thousands of immigrants on his Bethel ship moored in New York Harbor. In 1846 the Olof Jansenists started coming, directed in this strange land by Olof Hedstrom out to Illinois where Hedstrom's brother had followed a sweetheart from Pennsyl-

vania and located as a Methodist preacher at Victoria. Not far from there the Jansenists established their famous Bishop Hill colony, and enacted a weird story of tragedy, superstition, prosperity, and delusion. But the event which in 1848 foreshadowed the future was the organization of a small group of Swedish settlers in New Sweden, Iowa, into a Lutheran congregation. Thus was taken the initial step towards an independent status for these newcomers. Instead of allowing themselves to be absorbed into their environment and losing their identity, they expressed in their church life a will to preserve their heritage and be themselves amid the new surroundings. A year later Esbjorn came to Andover, Illinois, and the beginnings of the Augustana Synod were laid. It was already clear that the Swedish immigrants intended to have a history of their own in America.

Only about a month intervened between the arrival in this country of Frederika Bremer and L. P. Esbjorn. It would require a chapter to contrast the two. The one traveling in comfort and publicity, entertained by the literary leaders of the day, and meeting "the best people." The other an obscure figure, ministering to a small group of foreigners, burying a child along the weary way, and seeking a place to call home. The one came to observe and interpret American life. The other came to guide a people that would make new contributions to their adopted country. They broke the prairies and built the villages which grew into cities. Frederika Bremer has given an interesting picture of "America in the Fifties." Little did she foresee what her own countrymen and women would have achieved by the 1950's!

It was in the Augustana Synod that most of the newcomers found their spiritual home, and this church body was the first to arrange for a centennial in 1948. An invitation has been extended to the Church of Sweden to participate in the Synod's celebration, and Archbishop Erling Eidem has expressed a desire to be present at the jubilee of the Synod to be held at Augustana College and Theological Seminary at Rock Island in June of 1948, when representatives are expected from all of the Synod's twelve hundred congregations in the United States and Canada. Undoubtedly one day of the festival will be set aside for a pilgrimage to New Sweden, Iowa, and to Andover, Illinois, where a century ago the devout worshippers joined again in Swedish services on this continent.

"Again," we say, because two hundred years earlier Swedish colonists on the Delaware had heard this same ancient Swedish Mass and sung their hymns in Swedish. In the Old Swedes' Church in Philadelphia, Nicholas Collin had preached in that language until three decades before Esbjorn arrived. With the exception of those years Swedish



Home of Swedish Archives

Denkmann Memorial Library

religious rites have been held in America for three hundred years. And even in the interval there was Swedish preaching by the Hedstrom brothers and by Unonius.

The idea of the centennial has spread beyond the Augustana constituency. A joint committee has been formed which includes representatives of all the church groups, fraternal organizations, the press and educational institutions. Emphasis will be placed on local initiative and responsibility. Wherever large numbers of people of Swedish descent are located there will be exhibits, collecting of historical material, concerts, midsummer festivals, religious services. The central committee will seek to bring to this country in the fall of 1947 and the spring of 1948 celebrated scholars from the Swedish universities to lecture in American halls of learning. In this project the committee has been promised the cooperation of The American-Scandinavian Foundation. It is hoped that both the American and the Swedish governments will take cognizance of the event, and that a representative of the Swedish crown will be present at some of the major gatherings in 1948. Church-

men from both the State and the Free Churches have been invited by sister groups in this country.

As never before cultural relations between the nations of the earth must become more frequent and more significant, if we are to learn to live together in a world contracted as ours has been by modern communications. The alternative for armed conflict between nations is not isolationism, but the arts and virtues of peaceful intercourse. It is a winged word which the British Prime Minister uttered, and found its way into the constitution of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization: "Since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed." The Midwest Centennial of Swedish Pioneers can be one of the defenses of peace constructed by closer relationships between our America and the Sweden which gave so many of her children to help build this mighty nation.

Conrad Bergendoff is President of Augustana College and a former contributor to the REVIEW.

Pain

BY DAN ANDERSON

Translated from the Swedish by CAROLINE SCHLEEF

I KNOW not if deeper joy can be found
Than when lips are a-tremble with grief;
And when anguish has dampened the brow, could it be
We live at the full tide, complete?
Oh, no one comes to Fortune's Hall
So purged, so whole, so clean
As he who has faced himself, alone,
One night in anguishing pain.

(1920)

School Problems in Norway

BY DIDRIK ARUP SEIP

MANY PRESSING problems related to schools and education have cropped up in Norway after the liberation. In many ways the occupation brought the schools to the fore in the struggle. The Nazis wished to obtain control over the young. Experience in Germany seemed to prove that a broad foundation favorable to the Nazi ideology could be laid in the schools.

But that did not hold in Norway. Teachers and pupils took up the fight against every attempted advance on the part of Nazis and Quislings. But schooling became irregular. Many schools were requisitioned by the enemy, many teachers were imprisoned and dismissed, many young people were expelled or fled the country. The tension uppermost in all minds and hearts prevented regular attention to education. In compensation, the young people profited from a unique development imposed by life itself. The fact that the young participated directly in the struggle brought about a maturity and an interest in life's vital problems the like of which our country had never before experienced. It is understandable that it was not easy to resume daily work, no longer subject to tension and conflict. In addition, immediately before the war, important innovations had been voted in regard to education which we had only just started to carry out. For instance, the entire span of schooling, from elementary grades to final graduation as bachelor of arts, had been cut from 13 to 12 years. In 1944, therefore, two teams of bachelors of arts would coincide, would have to graduate simultaneously. The requirements in various subjects had also been changed. All this resulted in rather unsettled educational conditions, and the schools are still unsettled.

The changes in the educational system greatly influenced the universities and other establishments of learning. If the war had not come, they would have had to prepare for taking care of a double team of students in 1944. Now, the difficulties brought about by the war, aggravated the initial problems.

The University was ready for the patriotic fight from the moment the Quislings took control in September 1940. It resulted in the imprisonment, in 1941, of the Rector and of some professors of the University. Later, others were seized, particularly in the fall of 1943. And finally, on November 30, 1943, the University was closed. A great many of the male students were deported to Germany. At the

remaining institutes of learning the work was greatly hampered.

Oslo University reopened on May 14, 1945. And at the fall term of 1945, all the young people whose studies had been stopped or delayed during the war years thronged the university and the technical institutes. Before the war, somewhat more than 4000 students regularly attended the university. In the fall of 1945, more than 6000 *new* students matriculated. At the Technical High School at Trondheim the influx of students was overwhelming. All this resulted in the establishments of learning being overcrowded.

The difficulties were especially great at the Faculty of Medicine, at the Pharmaceutical Institute, at the Dental School, and at the Technical School which, even before the war, were prepared to receive only a limited number of students. Students at all Faculties had difficulty in finding a place to live, particularly in Oslo where housing facilities are extremely poor.

But at this point our neighbors extended a helping hand. Norwegian students of medicine, as well as pharmaceutical and technical students, were admitted to universities and institutes of learning in Denmark and Sweden in great numbers. Some also went to Switzerland and England. During the fall of 1945, arrangements were made for two or three hundred young Norwegians to go to the U.S.A. to continue their studies. It is estimated that altogether some 800 Norwegian students carry on studies outside of Norway. The help thus given has been of exceptional value at this critical juncture. I am sure that young Norwegians will bring back rich inspiration from the foreign universities and learned institutes.

Normally, however, Norwegian youth should receive its training in Norway. The university and other establishments of learning, therefore, face great problems of expansion.

The matter is particularly urgent in the case of the University of Oslo. It has to be decided whether the university shall continue to carry on its chief activity in the center of the capital, or whether it shall move out to nearby Blindern beyond the city-border, where the Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences already carry on their work. Moving would involve essential changes in the life of the university. At the same time it would be necessary to provide extensive housing for the students.

The University also needs many additional institutes. The Humanistic Faculties, in particular, have long been very needy.

It has been pointed out that the University must limit and screen the number of students admitted to most of the Faculties. It is reasonable that this question be taken up now, but our first duty is to clarify

fully Norway's need for men and women with a college education. That will probably be difficult to determine exactly.

Elementary, secondary, high schools, and establishments of learning in Norway all face a difficult period in the next few years. But I am certain that, in spite of all, one of the results of the war will be improved facilities for our young people to study in preparation of their life work and its requirements.

*Didrik Arup Seip was Rector of the University of Oslo from 1937 to 1945.
He spent two years in German captivity.*

Veins in the Earth

BY CHARLES WHARTON STORK

Translated from the Swedish of Ole Forvald

VEINS in the earth run hidden
Deep below river and tree
Till boldly they break to blossom
Where all can see.

Life above pain and chaos
With a whisper of green delight
Brims up, and lo! every spirit
Once more is bright.

The urge to new growth, well guarded
From winter's snow and sleet,
Has for man's restless fever
An answer sweet.

Veins in the earth run hidden
Deep below river and tree,
Where stilled is all hate, all menace,
All agony.



American-Swedish News Exchange, Inc.

Ingrid Bergman

Ingrid Bergman

BY HOLGER LUNDBERGH

IT IS SIGNIFICANT that most stories associated with the Bergman legend have to do with her work. They reveal her passionate devotion to her profession, a profession that forms the core and heart of her whole existence, regardless of its monetary or glamorous rewards. They reveal, too, her genuine modesty and her insatiable thirst for knowledge and experience.

A typical anecdote concerns her appearance on Broadway in Ferenc Molnar's "Liliom." She had returned to the United States in January, 1940, after a brief visit to Sweden following her first Hollywood picture, "Intermezzo," with the late Leslie Howard. But Mr. Selznick, under whose aegis she was then appearing, had no screen vehicle ready for her. One day in New York she was visiting her good friend and counsel, the brilliant and charming Miss Katharine Brown, who, as personal representative of Mr. Selznick, had gone to Sweden to bring the young actress to America. The phone rang. It was Vinton Freedley, the theatrical producer. "I'm going to put on 'Liliom,'" he an-



Ingrid Bergman

American-Swedish News Exchange, Inc.



Ingrid Bergman

American-Swedish News Exchange, Inc.

nounced. "I have seen your wonderful Bergman in 'Intermezzo,' and I want her for the play. Have you any idea where she is now? Sweden, I suppose."

Miss Brown told him that Ingrid was right at her elbow and that she was free to do the part, if she liked it. A few minutes later Miss Bergman and Mr. Freedley met, and that night, in the quiet of her hotel room, Ingrid was poring over the Molnar play. It was the part of Marie, a minor role, that she was studying. She could not, however, picture herself as the true-hearted but giggling and simple-minded peasant girl, and she told Mr. Freedley so the next day. "That particular kind of humor is not for me," she confessed. "What humor?" Freedley demanded. "There's certainly no humor in Julie's role." Only then did Miss Bergman realize that she had been wanted for the leading part, and that very afternoon she immersed herself in Julie's beautifully strong and poetic lines. "Liliom" was a great success with Manhattan audiences, just as "Intermezzo" had been with a nation-wide public. Her New York stage experience greatly bolstered her confidence and it was in a happy and triumphant mood that she made her return to Hollywood.

Many years later, still eagerly searching and probing, she expressed what seemed to her friends a bizarre wish to see Mae West in "Catherine Was Great." When asked what in heaven's name for, she replied, "I want to see if there is anything I can learn from her. It may come in handy some time." Upon leaving the incredibly bad play she explained, "I want to see what makes them tick—people who rise above the mob. And at least," she added with a grin, "I have learned what not to do."

When Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer were casting for "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde" they asked Miss Bergman if she wanted a part. "Yes," she answered, "if I can play the bad girl." Metro officials objected strenuously, but Ingrid stood pat, won the trick, and turned in a superb performance. Again she wanted desperately to make a picture with Director Leo McCarey, who was preparing to shoot "The Bells of St. Mary's." Mr. Selznick warned her, "You'll end up standing around watching Bing Crosby sing," he said. But she wanted to work with McCarey and the role of Sister Mary Benedict appealed to her—it wasn't a tailor-made part, and she knew she could do something special with it. She did.

How and whence her histrionic talent has come she is at a loss to explain, for there is no actor or actress among her forebears. It is true, though, that her father, the late Justus Bergman, a native of Småland, painted landscapes and portraits during his spare time—by profession he was an art photographer—and that he also possessed a handsome

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bass voice. As a member of the singing society "De Svenske" he made a tour of the United States in 1927. His was also one of the first amateur motion picture cameras in Sweden. The earliest film of Ingrid in existence is one which was taken by him on her first birthday, complete with cake, candles, and all. Today she unfailingly reels it off on each anniversary, which happens to be August 28.

Ingrid Bergman began her career via the school of the Royal Dramatic Theatre in Stockholm, Sweden's national stage, whose head at that time was Olov Molander, also known as a director of imagination and insight. For three months the young actress worked at small parts until she was awarded a far from insignificant role in a drama by the Swedish playwright and Academician, Sigfrid Siwertz. It was called "Ett Brott" ("A Crime"), and because of the aura surrounding the author's name and exalted aegis under which the then eighteen-year-old actress appeared, public and professional attention became focused on her. Other managers attended her performances and scouts from Svensk Filmindustri, Sweden's largest motion picture company, came to watch her. Soon she received her first offer—to appear in the films. Greatly excited, she hoped to be permitted to divide her time between the Royal Dramatic and the studios at Råsunda, near the capital, somewhat exaggeratedly known as "Sweden's Hollywood." But Mr. Molander was adamant. Either/or, was his verdict. After a brief but fierce struggle she made her decision—a decision that shaped her entire future life: she chose the sound cameras in favor of the footlights.

Among the many pictures she turned out during the following year there was one known as "Intermezzo." In a not too original plot, she found herself cast as one part of a marital triangle. The others were played by Inga Tidblad and, which was of enormously much greater importance, the late Gösta Ekman, a now almost legendary figure, whose gigantic repertory, in film and drama, ran all the way from the wildest French farces via low-voiced British drawing-room comedies to Hamlet. They made a great team in an almost great film, which eventually was shipped around the world and therefore also was shown in the United States. It was Selznick International Pictures that decided to bring the fresh-cheeked but wistful-looking girl to Hollywood for the same part in an American version of "Intermezzo." Certainly that year of 1937 became one of the most memorable ones of her career. Not only had she been co-starred with Sweden's greatest actor; she had also become married to a childhood friend, Peter Lindström, a young medical student. And now Hollywood beckoned!

Selznick's emissary spoke glowingly of a seven-year contract, but Miss Bergman was horrified. One picture, just possible, but seven

years—unthinkable. She had a husband, whose career in medicine must be considered. She was frankly afraid she might not be ready for the mythical world capital of the motion pictures. Another offer that seemed far less appalling reached the Swedish star about the same time. It came from UFA, the big film company of pre-war Germany. Going there meant but a short trip, and a brief separation from her husband. She felt it might prove a valuable test of her readiness for Hollywood. So she went to Germany, did one picture for UFA, and found the experience of working in a big, strange studio in a foreign land not at all terrifying. Hollywood did not seem so far away, nor so ominous, when she returned to Sweden.

But when, many months later, in the spring of 1939, she sailed from Europe with Miss Brown, Ingrid Bergman left behind not only a husband, but a half-year-old baby; little Pia had joined the family. She did not expect to be gone long. As a matter of fact, she wasn't. Her first stay in Hollywood was comparatively brief. Nevertheless, as she started for America, she was not only beginning a new career for herself but, as it turned out, finding a new homeland for her family as well.

Getting acquainted with an American studio was an overwhelming experience. The Stockholm plant where she had worked was efficient, but small and intimate. Like a doll's house in comparison with the mansion, she says. The American technicians were in turn amazed by her. She did her own makeup, combed her own hair. Why, she even worried about the costs. Not her own, but the studio's. In Sweden, actors and actresses were in the habit of saving as much for their employers as they could. Selznick early realized that her natural looks would compete successfully with Hollywood's synthetic beauty. She would shine with the freshness of a wildflower in a bouquet of hothouse roses. He issued strict orders that her eyebrows were not to be plucked, nor her lips rouged. This proved eminently wise, because the naturalness of the Bergman personality became one of her outstanding assets. The result is that Ingrid looks like Ingrid in still camera photographs just as she does in color shots or in motion pictures.

Almost before she realized it, "Intermezzo" was finished and Miss Bergman was ready to return to Sweden. She had longed passionately for the day when she could rejoin her husband and baby. Still, as she left Hollywood, she wept. She was afraid she might not be asked to return, and she knew now that she wanted to come back.

She might have spared herself the tears and the fears. The summons from Selznick came even more swiftly than she had hoped but, as it turned out, not a moment too soon. War had engulfed central Europe

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and was flaming close to the shores of Britain. Miss Bergman and baby Pia caught the last steamer from Genoa which carried civilian passengers. Dr. Lindström accompanied them to Italy, and then returned to Sweden.

Her second arrival in the picture capital, after the earlier mentioned stage success in "Liliom," was like a home coming. There were friends to greet her, a studio to welcome her. Roles were offered her from other companies, too. Columbia, for instance, wanted her immediately for a starring role opposite Warner Baxter in a picture called "Adam Had Four Sons." The part was that of a governess, a lofty and lovely character. Ingrid played this exalted part and straightway did another one. The second was that of a sweet and tender-hearted refugee. The picture was called "Rage in Heaven," and Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer did it. Robert Montgomery was the leading man.

By this time Miss Bergman was becoming a bit fed up with sweetness and light. She could feel the Hollywood type stamp reading "lovely character" almost like a brand on her. It was therefore she insisted on playing the bad girl in "Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde." When this picture was completed she went East for a well earned vacation. She had a very special reason for going: Dr. Lindström was coming to America to join the family. Ingrid met him in Rochester, N.Y., where he resumed his medical studies at the Strong Memorial Hospital in preparation for a career in surgery.

She was having a wonderful time as a Rochester housewife when Selznick again summoned her to Hollywood. This time he had a definite assignment for her. He was presenting Eugene O'Neill's play "Anna Christie" at the Lobero Theatre in Santa Barbara, and wanted her for the opening week. O'Neill might have been writing of Ingrid Bergman when he describes his "tall Viking" heroine. And Ingrid Bergman might have been thinking of Anna Christie when she dreamed of the ideal role. The week in Santa Barbara was a triumph. So was the two weeks' request engagement that followed at the Geary Theatre in San Francisco. To climax her happy stage association with "Anna Christie," Miss Bergman did the play for a week and a half at the summer stock theatre in Maplewood, N.J.

Back in Hollywood Warner Bros. got her for the melodrama "Casablanca." Miss Bergman wasn't too sure about the girl she was to play. She was another "lovely character," another refugee. But she had moments of fire and human weakness, and Miss Bergman molded it into an eloquent and haunting portrait in an otherwise banal story.

Another timely picture was in process of preparation. It was Ernest

The Rise and Fall of the Danish Empire

BY HANS BENDIX

Drawings by the Author

DENMARK IS A FORMER EMPIRE. I am afraid people outside Denmark have forgotten it. Even Danes are momentarily apt to forget it, though Hans Andersen reminds us pathetically: "Once you reigned over England; now they call you weak." We have no territorial claims, which our minister in Washington Mr. Henrik de Kauffmann has reassured the trembling world. I want to confirm that the Viking mentality is not picking up in Denmark and Mr. Atlee can sleep peacefully. What we don't like is that



*The Ermitage is still a Goal
for Gadders*

the dominions are busy under-selling butter in London, ignoring our everlasting hope to get Danish butter priced higher. This hope ought to be introduced in our national hymn.

Anglo Saxons have no reason solely to resent us. We also used to terrorize the Swedes. Many Danes still think the latter deserved it, and it annoys them that we gave Norway to Sweden in 1814. Misinformed historians think it happened because the Danish kings had a bad habit of putting their stake on the wrong horse, as was the case with Napoleon. The fact is that our leaders, with a praiseworthy foresight, gladly gave parts of Denmark away to avoid all the troubles and worries of being one of the

great powers to deal with Molotov. The policy of a minor Denmark has been followed up by selling the Danish West Indies to U.S.A. at a bargain price, and we enjoyed the privilege of Iceland separating itself from the motherland during this war without a moment's notice. Instead, our small children ride their ponies in Tivoli amusement park, and we have taught the Swedes how to play soccer to the extent that they now beat us terribly. All is well as long as we have ourselves left plus Greenland, which is the largest island on the globe, able to provide the world with ice if it so desired. It doesn't. The world prefers coal.



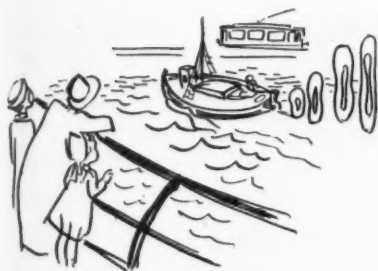
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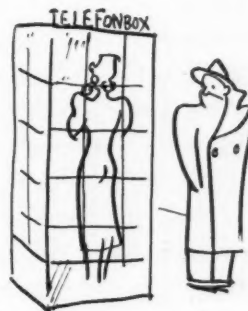
In the year 1864 Germany started eating us from below. This procedure momentarily hurt the feelings of many Danes who fought bravely for the Kiel Canal that contains the delicious eels which we cherish smoked. But already in 1919, after World War I, we goodheartedly invited German children to be fed and clothed in Denmark and sent them back to Germany with the greeting: *Auf Wiedersehen*. The Ger-

man children understood it too literally, as they came back the 9th of April 1940 with hand grenades. This we definitely did not like. We became a nation of freedom fighters, taking back what we helped create with our Danish bacon and butter. We stored as much of the German human flesh as we could six feet under ground. A number of Danish girls decided that if we this time were to feed children they ought to be at least half Danish. In order to get subsidies from the government they have to advertise the name of the father in the Danish official journal. The journal is swamped with names of *Nazi-Gefreiters* (enlisted men). But what member of the former Wehrmacht reads that organ back in the German ruins?

We are fed up with being a welfare institution for German children. Unfortunately, we have many more German children to take care of now than after any other world war. Furthermore, they have brought their parents, uncles and aunts. There are still 250,000 German refugees here. They are not supposed to go back to their homes in Germany. That is the one thing Zukow, Eisenhower, Montgomery, Koenig and the other occupying Allied generals seem to agree on. Four million Danes are taking a terrible punishment having to pay for food and clothing for a quarter of a million of our recent suppressors.

Among these four million Danes are not included William S. Knudsen nor Victor Borge and Osa Massen. They come and see us once in a while, and they are almost as welcome as the gift packages with figs, chocolate, rice and chewing gum sent by the California Dairy King. Tom Knudsen, had he only remembered cigars.

The Danes are evenly divided in the country and the cities. The people in the country are convinced that the city Danes only go to the movies,



"Er det du?"

*Bishop Absalon*

dance and would sooner give up smoking than buying Danish tobacco from Fyen and Jylland. The city dwellers envy the country people who, in their eyes, have all the goods and forget to pay their taxes. A hundred city papers fight a hundred provincial papers fanatically all year round. It is a thirty years war, interrupted only every summer when farmers provide city children with fresh air, milk, eggs, and food on their farms during seven weeks of school vacation.

In Denmark we have two kinds of human beings: men and women. Formerly the women used to be wholesome like cheese, busty in front and competing generously behind. It was life. But American movies and Katharine Hepburn spoiled it. The Danish girls reduce their qualities and they work at it. They combat God's gifts and Danish bacon by violent gymnastics combined with a hunger strike and they often end up in hospitals. Danes have poor talent for starvation. American visiting soldiers can testify to this. They have endured much Danish hospitality and the "Snaps"—the Danish firewater which they name the Danish atomic bomb, because it finishes them off completely. They get only a few days' leave, since all of the Allied armies stationed in Germany want to eat here. The short leaves save them from being marked for life.

Danish males get fat before they reach forty. A few avoid this fate, thanks to ulcers of the stomach. Consequently they are adored like Clark Gable and Sinatra. Sheer modesty prevents me from revealing the source of this information. We still envy our American brothers, especially the gentlemen of the press from Hollywood, tough guys who keep their hats on in the presence of murdered corpses. We only do that with ladies. With never failing politeness, however, we always say: "Don't give it a second thought, Madam. And if you don't like it go to hell."

The Danish people are second to none in skating as well as in education. We read that in our schoolbooks, which are written in a way to avoid inflicting inferiority complexes on the

*Amagertorv Flower Market still carries on but in reduced scale*



Shoes lined with Rabbit Fur protect Womanhood

future population. Simultaneously we learn to read and write, combining information with exercises. The result is that we have no illiterates, though we sometimes doubt the value of reading. The population abuses its reading ability swallowing American and English literature, short stories with the office girl marrying the boss. To tell the truth sometimes vice versa. Never do we read that she gets the child before she gets the boss, which, of course, only happens in real life.

Danes are for some reason or other supposed to be full of humor. The Swedes say so. We have not noticed it

ourselves, and the Nazis never discovered it.

We can't help being funny unless we try to be funny. That is our tragedy. In reality we are dreadful bores, a statement which can be checked any time by listening to the Danish State radio.

Danes vote openly by secret ballots. They are too modest to praise the government they themselves have elected. That is one of the reasons it is difficult to find someone who is willing to govern Denmark.

During the last fifty years the Social Democratic Party has made Denmark socially secure with old age pensions and beautiful homes for old people and parks for children, expensive schools with free food and summer vacations for everybody. Many Danish intellectuals, though, are violently in love with the Soviet Union, knowing as much about that closed country as they know of life after death. Before the war, our late great Social Democratic leader, Thorvald Stauning, failed to solve the unemployment problem. The population managed to solve it themselves. During the twenties the habit of getting children was curtailed to the extent that there are fewer children in preachers' homes now. I should say some have even less than ten. Therefore we actually need man power, the man power which fifteen years ago emi-



Keeping Hot in Winter with Coke Rations



*To keep warm the Girls Use
Ski-Pants everywhere*

Nevertheless I am bringing comfort to the faithful. I made a trip through Denmark at the beginning of the year and I am glad to report that I talked to a nurse who had met primitivity coming up from the heath of Jutland in person. He had lived with a few pigs and chickens in dark loneliness and was now deadly sick in a hospital. He said he always wanted to see "one of 'em locomotives." The other wish was to see a nude woman. The nurse was only in a position to help realize one of the wishes. That done the old man said: "Thank God! and now I want only to see a nude woman!" That kind of innocent ignorance and confused primitivity in Danish death beds is not likely to occur often. Don't let us be dangerously optimistic. Modern civilization is too strong, and the time will come when thatched roofs are blown off all the peasant homes of Denmark.

Hans Bendix is a well-known Danish illustrator who after spending the war years in the United States recently returned to his old position as editor and illustrator for the Danish newspaper Social-Demokraten. Mr. Bendix is also the author of two books, one on South America, the other on North America.

grated to Venezuela, because U.S. had practically closed its doors to Danes. To make things worse, the young ones today have but one desire: to crash the gates of America with more success. Denmark is threatened by the prospect of becoming a nation of old ladies and decaying men. The birth rate situation is happily picking up today. Keep it up, boys and girls!

Many Danes in America are anxious not to have their memory of the old cozy but primitive little motherland disturbed by the fact that Denmark is being modernized by radio, *Lyntog*, and plastics.



*Danish Girls have Inner Heat,
thank heaven!*

Language Reform in Denmark

BY SVEN CLAUSEN



THE ICELANDIC LAWS OF 1118 A.D., *grágás*, cite "Danes, Swedes, and Norwegians from the three kingdoms where our language is to be found." At that time, in spite of slight shades of dialect, the Northern languages were one.

Today Icelandic and Faroese no longer share this mutual intelligibility. A Faroese and an Icelandic speaking their own languages cannot make themselves understood to Swedes and Danes, although it is still possible for Fennoscandians, Swedes, Danes, and Norwegians to converse successfully. I have experienced that this is true also of Danes encountering persons who use "New"-Norwegian.

The differences in language are, however, increasing and one can foresee the time when mutual intelligibility no longer exists. If and when that time comes there will seem to be but a small basis left for the term "Scandinavian."

No real understanding has yet been shown of this problem. Each language has taken its own course. We have not fully realized that the more important each of us tries to seem the less important will we be as a whole. Too seldom have we remembered the familiar maxim: "United we stand, divided we fall," or as some put it: "If we don't hang together we shall all hang separately." Northern language policies have rather made one think of the famous drawing by Fritz Jurgensen. Geographic and political circumstances are the reason for this lamentable divorce. The focal point of the North lies unfortunately beneath the waters of the Kattegat and Skagerrak. That is the most



Hey, move further away! Remember, we're a whole regiment!

important geographic difficulty. Politically, the old Danish-Norwegian kingdom consisted of many component parts, namely, Slesvig-Holstein, Denmark, Norway, the Faroe Islands, and Iceland. Among these the German Holstein played too dominant a role. The Royal Court and the nobility, the army, and often the townspeople spoke German. The Danish language thereby became half-German and this Germanized language spread to Norway and was about to penetrate into Iceland. Molesworth, an Englishman who visited Denmark 1689-92, writes: "The King, Great Men, Gentry, and Many Burghers make use of the High-Dutch in their ordinary Discourse—I have heard several in the High Employment boast that they could not speak Danish."

When Norway and Denmark were separated in 1814 Norway started to work on the weeding out of this half-German language and the re-introduction of a Nordic language such as is still spoken in the rural areas.

Denmark could have started on a similar reform, because also in Danish dialects there lived in the eighteen fifties, and live fortunately even today, many Nordic words in cases where the educated language uses a German expression.

Unfortunately, however, Denmark and Norway did not agree to cooperate in this language reform. In Denmark the Norwegian linguistic movement was interpreted as being directed against Danish, although, in reality, it was directed against the German corruption of Danish. On the other hand, Norwegians were unaware of the fact that Denmark, like Norway, in its dialects possessed a linguistic Nordic subsoil from which much was to be gained. Our best known philologist, Rasmus Rask, puts it in these words: "The popular language contains

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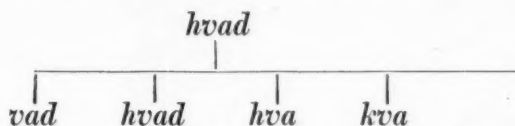
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more Icelandic than the literary language, and the literary language contains more German than the popular tongue."

Another unhappy circumstance has to be considered—the phonetic spelling. The theory that a word should be spelled the way it is pronounced was flourishing at the time when Norway reformed its language, and, as a result, many words which originally were the same are now spelled differently in Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish. As an example there may be mentioned the word corresponding to "what." Forty years ago this word was spelled *hvad* throughout Scandinavia. Today in Denmark it is spelled *hvad*, in Sweden *vad*, and in Norway *hva* or *kva*. As an introduction to lengthy family novels one often finds an ancestral outline. In the same way one might as a preface to the family tragedy called the Scandinavian language problem offer the following chart:



Another example is the word corresponding to "me" which forty years ago throughout Scandinavia was spelled *mig*, while it is now in Denmark *mig*, in Norway *meg*, and in Sweden officially still *mig* but frequently *mej*. The same principle is followed in many other instances. Through this process the Scandinavian languages have slowly grown so far apart that it has become easy for us to misunderstand each other.

As for the vocabulary, the growing differences are evident in that some words die out in one language while they live on in the others. In Denmark it is most frequently a Scandinavian word which falls into oblivion and is substituted by a German one.

This is best illustrated by some words which are to be found also in

English:

| Current Danish | German | Current Swedish | Old Danish | English |
|----------------|----------------|-----------------|------------|----------|
| snitte | schnitzen | karva | karve | to carve |
| kartofler | die Kartoffeln | potatis | poteter | potatoes |
| pragt | die Pracht | ståt | stat | state |
| bekvem | bekvem | händig | handig | handy |
| spise | speisen | äta | aede | to eat |
| sundhed | die Gesund- | | | |
| | heit | hälsa | helse | health |
| forkert | verkert | vrång | vrang | wrong |
| fejlgreb | Fehlgriff | misstag | mistag | mistake |

Further, different terms are often given to new things. The word



Statue on the old border facing Germany
personifying the Danish language

haps the most annoying cases of all. Nor can anyone, if he has not gone to school in all four countries, fully grasp all shades of meaning. Frequently it is something more than a shade of meaning. A word like *stok* ("stick"), for instance, has in Swedish the meaning "log," while in Danish it means "cane," just as in German.

Up till recently the problem had been viewed humorously, and many stories were circulated in reference to mistakes that were made because the same word had received different meanings in the different countries. Scandinavians had also begun to turn to German as the common language used in meetings. There was no understanding of the fact that this was a most unfortunate development, and little mention was made publicly that the languages were growing apart.

The Scandinavian language reform movement dates back to May 1935 when an inter-Scandinavian congress of authors was held in Helsinki, the capital of Finland. The author participated in the meetings that were held in the senate building. Without noting in

"scout" for instance, was adopted directly in Sweden, although spelled *skaut*, while this word in Denmark was translated into *spejder* (compare: "to spy"). "Broadcasting" became in Sweden and Denmark *radio* but in Norway *kringkasting*. The word "kindergarten" was adopted without any changes in Swedish, while in Danish it was translated literally (*børnehave*). Similar occurrences by the thousands naturally serve to weaken the mutual usefulness of the Scandinavian languages.

Finally, some words may be retained in all languages but over a period of time develop different meanings—per-



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detail what subjects were under discussion which, as is true always when intellectuals get together, mostly concerned money, I was filled with the thought that these people, of whom many had travelled two days to be present, were able to use their own languages and understand each other. I was impressed by the discovery that our Danish language, instead of being limited to four million people, actually can reach seventeen millions over a wide geographic area.

Yet, at the same time I realized that this partnership in language was in great danger.

It is of course true that the Danish language, such as it is, and disregarding its being part-German, is watched over with patriotic love, just as song birds foster their cuckoo young as tenderly as their own offspring. Slowly there has developed in Denmark a "linguistic ear," a feeling for what sounds good and what sounds bad, and this linguistic ear almost invariably finds that words of Scandinavian origin sound bad while those of German origin sound good. Those advocating a reform of the language therefore have advanced the drastic theory that the linguistic ear is defective and should not be followed: "If your linguistic ear offends you, tear it off!"



The situation, like the ear, is of course delicate. The educated, and especially the partly educated, resist, and they have a great influence in so far as religious and moral feelings rebel against pronounced changes in the language. It is this point that Fritz Jørgensen illustrates by his drawing.

In general those favoring reform in Denmark stress that one ought to be as willing to adopt words from Norwegian and Swedish as from the more popular languages. Until recently German and French loan words have been accepted, while it has been strictly maintained that any Norwegian or Swedish influence would be a breach of style. Those who wish for reform have expressed this peculiar attitude in the following words: "Towards the leading languages Danish is as willing as a prostitute; towards Norwegian and Swedish as ascetic as a nun." This aversion to borrowing from other Scandinavian languages has, as a matter of fact, existed in all the Northern countries. In theory this hostility is now, after ten years of debate, about to disappear. But old practice is hard to break. Those desiring reform further assert that

Scandinavian words which are part of the written language in Norway and Sweden should not be borrowed from overseas but culled from dialects at home in Denmark itself and introduced into written Danish and that old Danish words which still live in Norwegian and Swedish should be revived. Finally it is advocated that phonetic spelling be abolished, while greater attention should be given to maintaining throughout Scandinavia a uniform visual appearance in writing. The lack of the latter hampers mutual reading ability and thereby hinders a parallel development of the vocabulary.

Those working for a reformed language have noted with great satisfaction the encouragement they have received from the associated philologists in Sweden and the interest shown by Norwegian and New-Norwegian philologists. The reformists follow the strict principle of requesting changes only within their own language and abstain from criticism of the language development in the other countries. Several books have been published advocating these measures. They are sent free to colleges and universities and similar institutions where they may possibly influence the youth, if they are ever opened! Several organizations concerned with the language problem have gradually come into being.

It would be of decisive importance if finally the common university city which Grundtvig proposed in 1839 could be realized. If we had such a common academic center, a Scandinavian Oxford or Cambridge, where all the young people of Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Iceland, and the Faroes could study, were it only for a few months, then unity of language would be assured for the future. All would then come to understand that the problem exists, and anything beyond that is hardly necessary, because nobody is fool enough to wish willfully for the destruction of such a common asset.

Vadstena would be excellently suited for such an Oxford of the North, or Visby on the island of Gotland. Were it established in Denmark, Elsinore might be ideal. However, people have talked about this project now for one hundred and six years; so it will probably come to naught. Scandinavian cooperation has always been on the moist side; there is no existing inter-Scandinavian institution except the brewery.

Sven Clausen has achieved distinction in Denmark as Doctor of Jurisprudence as well as dramatist, poet, and essayist



Kvarnholmen in Stockholm Harbor, the Island Entirely Devoted to Co-operative Enterprises, Including a Flour Mill, Factories for Rolled Oats, Macaroni, and Rye Crisp, Besides Houses for Employees

Agricultural Co-operatives in Sweden

BY GEORG FROSTENSON

THE GREAT DISTURBANCES in our economic life which occurred in the last decade gave rise, at first, to the thought of *overproduction*. Our economic machine had grown too big; the peoples were not capable of consuming the abundance of commodities which were thrown on the market.

As the Depression went on, the idea of overproduction was gradually being replaced by that of *underconsumption*. This change in emphasis was partly a reflection of the decline in standards of living from the pre-Depression peak. But it also became increasingly clear that the talk of surpluses is in part mythical, inasmuch as a production stop would result in an exhaustion of most food items within a few days or weeks.

From now on the public interest was to an increasing degree focused

on the problems of marketing, or, as it was preferably called, *distribution*.

It is likely that the growing interest in the problem of distribution was inspired by a belief that the factors of production could well be brought under control, and if we could solve the "distribution" problems, our agricultural and industrial facilities could provide a decent living for all mankind.

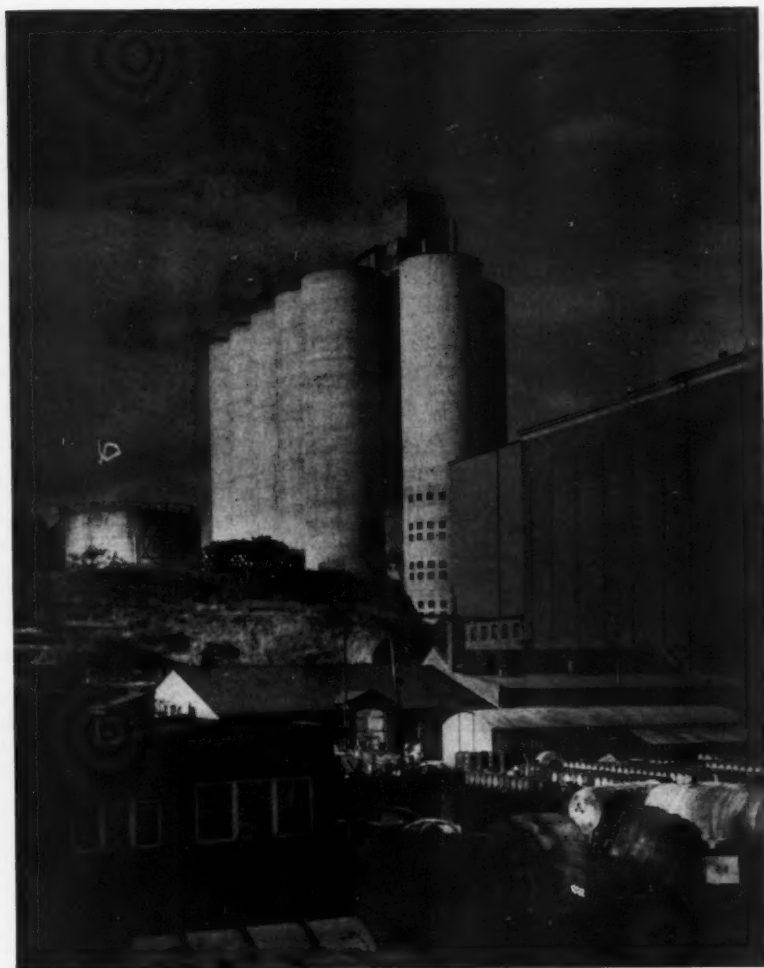
It appears, however, that in the public mind the term distribution largely assumed the meaning of finding ways and means properly to satisfy the physical needs of a population. In practice these measures would represent a form of equalization of income and property, and many measures taken by governments during these hard years tended toward equalization. The food stamp plan and the free school lunch programs in this country may serve as examples.

The Problems of Marketing

Actually, of course, marketing or distribution is something quite different. Marketing follows "production" and involves the physical and financial transactions in making commodities available to the consumer in accordance with his wants (which may mean anything from an indispensable need to a pure whim) and his ability to pay. When the problems of marketing are so defined, they are perhaps less spectacular. But it is believed that real, substantial and lasting social gains can be made by improving the efficiency of the present marketing system. True, no miracles can be expected. There can be no "relief" in the marketing functions. Our marketing system is basically efficient and is in process of constant improvement. No new blueprints, however inspired, could change the basic pattern of marketing. In practice the marketing problems must largely be tackled step by step, commodity by commodity. What then can agricultural co-operation do?

Agricultural marketing and purchasing co-operatives have been established to render certain services within the marketing process. Some one must perform these jobs. From a functional viewpoint, therefore, co-operatives do not differ essentially from other forms of business organization. The only significant difference is that a co-operative, contrary to ordinary corporations, is owned and controlled by those who patronize it. From a general marketing standpoint, the question is, therefore, whether this form of ownership and control results in a more efficient distribution of agricultural products. Another question is to what extent it may influence the distribution of income between farmers and other members of society.

The following lines are merely designed to give some aspects of agri-



The Co-operative Oil Factory in Karlshamn with the Largest Silo Plant in Sweden

cultural co-operation in Sweden and to point out some of its problems. It will be seen that co-operatives have some strong and some weak points, and that their applicability as a tool for a redistribution of income is remote indeed.

Two Aspects of the Movement

The co-operative movement in Sweden is made up of the consumer co-operatives, headed by Kooperativa Förbundet (KF) and the farmers' co-operatives. The purpose of the former is primarily to supply consumers—everywhere—with foods and other necessities at cost. The farmers' co-operatives, on the other hand, assist their farmer-members

in marketing produce from the farms or in purchasing farm supplies and equipment. In addition, some farm associations render services of an economic nature in the field of both production and marketing. The most important of these service agencies are the credit unions.

The consumers' and the farmers' co-operatives are in Sweden two different organizations and do not overlap to any considerable extent. It is difficult to determine which of the two movements is more important and which has made the more significant contributions to social and economic development in Sweden.

Financially, the consumers' co-operatives are stronger than the farmers'; although their total assets in 1940 amounted to about the same value or close to 300 million kronor. The membership in the consumers' co-operatives was about 760,000 compared to 600,000 in the farmers'. (Sweden's population is 6.4 million, of which one third lives on farms.) The contribution to the national income was about twice as large for the consumers' as for the farmers' co-operatives.

The consumers' co-operatives show a lower degree of monopolization than do the farmers'. In 1940 the consumers' co-operatives operated 5,472 stores, which was less than 10 per cent of the total number of retail establishments. The same year the farmers' co-operatives owned 726 out of a total of 1,027 milk receiving and manufacturing plants and controlled 86 per cent of the total sales of milk. In other produce lines the farmers' co-operatives are less important.

Farmers' Co-operatives

The development of co-operatives is closely linked to the decline in the farm population in following industrialization and rise of larger consuming centers. When, as in 1870, about 70 per cent of the Swedish population lived on farms, the problem of marketing was less important than today when only one third of the population lives on farms. Several co-operatives were started already in the last century—in particular, milk plants and purchasing associations. But the main development has taken place during the last forty years. The organization was strongly stimulated by the 1930 Depression, at which time also several new co-ordinating agencies were formed and the amount of services expanded.

The number of farms with any sizable market surplus is about 300,000, and the number of members in the farmers' co-operatives—excluding the service associations—is approximately 600,000. In other words, the average farmer is a member of two co-operatives. The total number of marketing and purchasing associations—including the credit unions and excluding a large number of small assembling units—amounted to

about 2,500 in 1940. In about 800 of these, purchasing predominated. About 725 were milk plants, and 750 credit unions. The remainder marketed or processed commodities such as eggs and poultry, livestock, fruits and vegetables, lumber and potatoes. In addition, there were more than 7,000 service agencies, such as associations for breeding and testing of milk and collective use of machinery. The business volume of these co-operatives is impressive—more than 1,100 million kronor in 1940. It is estimated that about 70 per cent of all farm products is at present marketed through co-operative channels.

A characteristic feature of the farmers' co-operatives is that most of them have specialized in one commodity. This approach was, no doubt, beneficial at the beginning, but has in many instances resulted in relatively small units. During the last decade considerable effort was made to consolidate milk plants, and it is likely that after the war this process will continue and involve consolidation of different types of associations as well.

Another feature of the farmers' movement is that each group of associations is combined in regional and national federations. In most instances these were formed after a sufficiently large body of specialized co-operatives had been created, but in a few cases a promotional agency had been established before the local development took place. This was the case with the Central Federation of Swedish Agriculture, which now acts as a co-ordinating agency for all the farmers' co-operatives. In addition, the Central Federation renders a variety of services for the member co-operatives ranging from advisory assistance in office organization to dealing with the broad problems of agriculture—partly in collaboration with governmental agencies and independent organizations.

Although the farmers' co-operatives show a considerable degree of monopolization in the sense that they handle a large proportion of the farm products marketed, they have not attempted to raise prices by means of production control. On the contrary, production has tended to increase where co-operatives have been established, indicating a former lack of dependable outlets. In general, it does not appear that the attempts to control production which have been made in other countries have yielded satisfactory results. It is certain that the agricultural income cannot be increased by the means of production control, because what is gained in higher prices is lost in reduced volume.

Unlike the KF organization, the farmers' co-operatives have entered the field of manufacturing only to a limited extent. The purchasing organizations possess facilities for grinding and mixing feeds and storing grain. The marketing associations act largely as wholesale

agencies, performing only such processing as is necessary for preventing the occurrence of surpluses or for selling the produce on the basis of established standards for quality and grades. In the same way the producers have been paid on a quality and grade basis. This has encouraged the farmers to adjust their methods in accordance with the demand of the trade. It is within the range of possibilities that the farmers' co-operatives will go more extensively into the field of processing, retailing, and manufacturing of farm necessities. The purpose of such developments would be to eliminate excessive costs in these fields and to secure dependable outlets. The organizations are, however, hardly ready for a more substantial service expansion along these lines.

Advantages and Disadvantages

The social gains due to the development of agricultural co-operatives in Sweden can be summed up as follows. The co-operatives have speeded up the trend towards larger business units and thereby increased the efficiency of operation. They have promoted a better grading and handling of farm produce and made the farmers more conscious of the demands of the market. They have encouraged democratic methods and raised up local and national leaders—many of whom have later made important contributions in other fields. They have helped to reduce the amount of seasonal and temporary variations in the supply of farm products by establishing facilities for feeding the markets in a smoother, more orderly way. They have provided the farmers with bargaining agencies which can bring the farmers' viewpoint to bear before the government and other groups. They have lessened the amount of governmental regulation and control over the farm industry. A comprehensive co-operative system constitutes in wartime a valuable organ for the control and equal distribution of scarce food products.

On the other hand, a co-operative system may also be used as an instrument for political control in case a dictator emerges or a country is invaded. There are some inherent weaknesses in the co-operative form of organization, in particular when—as in Sweden—it has assumed the status of a semi-monopoly. The management has not the same incentive as in private enterprises to maintain and increase efficiency in operation. This is particularly the case where the most powerful of correctives—competition—has been partly or completely eliminated. For many co-operative employees and leaders this is a fact which is hard to realize. When—as in Sweden—the co-operatives have formed central federations, the problem of division of powers between the local associations and the federations is ever present. Local independence is in itself highly desirable, but may express itself in reluctance

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to bring about changes aimed towards increased efficiency. If, on the other hand, the power is too much centralized, the co-operatives lose their character of a democratic movement and their success will largely depend upon the ability and wisdom of a few leaders.

The best conditions for progress exist where there is a harmonious relationship between an able, scientific leadership and an enlightened and vigilant membership. It is, however, often too tempting for leaders to choose the easier road of indoctrinating the members and to intrench the whole movement in fixed and fortified positions. In that case, the co-operatives will be fighting a losing battle.

In spite of many shortcomings, the co-operative idea, translated into action, is basically sound. The monopolistic tendencies in the movement are not alarming, because they are a consequence of the specific nature of farm production and of the development of larger, more efficient, business units. The co-operatives cannot control the price of farm products except by acquiring control of the farm production. This has not happened in Sweden, nor is it likely to happen.

Georg Frostenson came here as a Fellow of the American-Scandinavian Foundation from Sweden to study agricultural economics. He is now a research assistant at Cornell University

English Under German Occupation

BY AASTA STENE

THE BASIC question facing English studies in Norway under German occupation was, of course, *to be or not to be*. This was a political issue. So was the problem of the character of *texts and other material* used in teaching and in advanced studies. But the latter was also a question partly dealt with behind the backs of the occupying power. The *methods* used in teaching and study in order to overcome the special difficulties created by the isolation, as well as the *maintenance of standards*, was a field to which the enemy—in the nature of things—was barred from access.

In our educational system, foreign languages, and English in the first place,

comes in at all levels—at the elementary, the secondary, and the university stage. The experiences of the war made alert people in the educational field keenly aware that education is *one*, that it did not make much difference whether students were elementary first-graders or were doing advanced research work; for in all cases it was our task to protect their right to free investigation, to neutralize the enemy's efforts to regiment them physically and spiritually, and if possible, to aid them in acquiring skills and knowledge which would make it possible for them to maintain freedom of thought and intellectual and moral integrity.

Therefore any enemy attack on any

part of our educational system was an attack on the whole. We have a concise proverbial phrase in Norwegian: "Today you, tomorrow me." The Nazis did not normally try a frontal attack on the whole system; they tried to single out one group for attack at a time, on the principle of "divide and conquer." Hence, issues that were common to all, might be fought by one group, sometimes at one level, sometimes at another. Thus the issue of banning of books was fought at the University level; compulsory introduction of texts at the elementary and partly at the secondary level; the issue of "political reliability" as a prerequisite for access to higher education (on the German pattern) by the entrants to teachers' training colleges. (To guard against a common misunderstanding I had better point out that, in spite of the enemy's intensive and drastic efforts to achieve this aim, Norwegian education was not Nazified, nor was Nazi material used in teaching. The enemy might curtail, but was unable to interpolate.)

Our recent school laws lay down as a principal objective: "to give the pupils an orientation in the world of today." Foreign languages occupy a large place. *Per se*, learning a foreign language means acquiring a skill; they are not orientation subjects but they provide a tool for orientation. And above the most elementary level the texts used are partly selected with the orientation objective in view. Hence curricula are not restricted to literature pure and simple; texts dealing with history, geography, and politics are required to form part of the curricula.

In the 1930's English was, by legislative action, made our first foreign language. It was introduced in the elementary schools and also in the teachers' training colleges. Earlier, German had been the first foreign language, started in secondary schools, with English coming second, a year later. This change represents a culmination of a tendency in our cultural life and general orientation.

Traditionally our academic life has been strongly oriented toward the European continent, particularly Germany. For advanced study people went to Germany. In the schools they had acquired good knowledge of German, and read German easily. But our economic life was oriented westward, to the English-speaking world. And, in the 19th Century, from the 1850's on, the popular, democratic movement worked for an increasing orientation westward also in the secondary schools, which were then dominated by the tradition of classics and German. The more radical movement stressed the importance of science, English, and our own cultural traditions, including Old Norse. Step by step these subjects were placed on the curriculum and gained ground.

The strong position of English in our school system was thus a fairly recent achievement. And the marvel is that on one point it was even strengthened while the Germans were in power. By the school law of 1935 English was introduced into the elementary schools, with five hours a week in each of the two upper grades. In the simultaneous changes in the secondary schools, English had been cut off at the top on the science side and on the classical side. The total number of hours was increased, but the science students would stop English two years before graduation from the gymnasium. In May 1939 Helga Stene pointed out that these students would stop learning English before they were mature enough to acquire the abstract romance part of the vocabulary, and that this would be a handicap for them in studying their special subjects. The medical faculty, engineers, and scientists, took up the problem. The plans (which were not yet in force) were revised, and this revision, increasing English on the science side by two hours taken from German and one from mathematics, was passed by the cabinet the week before the German invasion of Norway.

After the German invasion, the Ministry of Education headed by Dr. Seip,

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Rector of the University, in the period of the Administration Council (April-September 1940) had this legacy from the government. As good patriots they put the decision into force, and published it in a circular to the schools issued in the summer of 1940, but so unobtrusively formulated that the fact that there was a change could only be discovered by keen and well-informed readers. The Nazis never discovered it. I think we have a right to be proud of the fact that the study of English was increased under their very noses, and by two hours taken from German. This took effect in 1941. At the time it was quite hard not to gloat, but now we may do so.

So on one point of the "to be or not to be" we were most successful.

In the elementary schools the new plans for English were in effect from 1939. This was hard for the Nazis to tolerate. And in the spring of 1941 they decided to replace it by German. This led to an action on the part of the teachers, which did not achieve its objective of preventing the introduction of German, but which nevertheless was important in our internal history. When these intentions were known, representatives of all concerned met and deliberated: elementary school teachers, secondary teachers, university staff and students, training college students, textbook publishers and authors. The outcome was a letter to the Ministry of Education (then Nazi-controlled), requesting that the introduction of German be postponed, backing it by pedagogical arguments. This letter was signed by practically all those elementary schoolteachers in and near Oslo who might be asked to take language classes. It was passed on through their organizations, but the president of the one organization later turned out to have kept it back—he was afraid—and it was not forwarded in time. We can still wonder whether it would have achieved its aim, if it had been promptly forwarded. But it did demonstrate one thing. It showed that the individual

teacher was ready to put his or her signature to a letter of defiance. And it is interesting that this first case, where the individual teacher signed a letter to protect our traditional values, was in the defense of English as a school subject. It was an important step in the development that culminated in the large flood of individual letters that constituted the teachers' protest of 1942, against regimentation and Nazi youth service—and which was the beginning of the most crushing political defeat the Nazis suffered in Norway.

These examples show the great concern and interest shown in maintaining the means of our cultural contacts with the English-speaking world. We found in 1940 that the number of students taking English increased. Back in those days—recalling the military situation at the time—we would have expected the students who looked to their careers to take German. But English was the more popular subject.

The Germans were not exactly favorably inclined to this interest. One of the main points in their propaganda—at any rate until the attack on Russia when the main force was concentrated on Bolshevism—was that we were a poor misguided people, that we had excellent qualities but had come too much under the pernicious influence of the Marxist-plutocratic British, and that a small body of paid British agents were still keeping up a pro-British attitude. We were also accused of too great interest in the effeminate culture of USA. They proceeded to help. They established courses in German for officials, for teachers, for the public. In one case, all elementary schoolteachers in Stavanger were summoned to take part in a course in German, with the objective of qualifying them as teachers of German in the elementary schools. Not a single one met; the only two present were the Nazi leader of the course and the local Nazi school commissar. The response they hoped for was certainly not in evidence.

They had also made efforts to enlist people with good knowledge of German to give courses. In one case an envoy of the Nazi education minister and one from the Kulturbteilung of the Reichskommissariat toured to get such courses started. They went to the secondary school in a western town, gave a propaganda talk, presented the plan, and asked the teachers to cooperate. There was a long pause. When the silence had become really oppressive, the senior language teacher, a woman of character and influence, got up and said, slowly and deliberately: "Under the present circumstances I hardly consider it advisable to embark on such a project." And that was that. The two Nazi envoys were to travel by boat to the next town the same afternoon. A member of the science staff, who had not been at the language teachers' meeting, was sent off by the same boat, ostensibly to visit a family member in the hospital there. He arrived in Stavanger together with the Nazi envoys, but was more effective, called on his language colleagues and told them about what had happened. And when the two ambassadors of German culture put their project before this assembly, there was again a pause, and then the senior language teacher, a man this time, got up and said: "Under the present circumstances I do not. . . ." It must have been quite a disheartening odyssey for the two representatives of the occupying power. It will be appreciated that it was connected with great risk to take stands like this in the face of those who had behind them all the power of the German arms and the Gestapo.

For Norwegian patriots it was felt to be important to keep alive our contacts with the west. Physically they were broken. Being isolated goes absolutely against the grain with us. Traditionally we are a people that maintain fervently our own tradition and cultural patterns, but consider it as part of that pattern to go out in the world and look on it as our playground. That attitude does not re-

quire an empire, or spheres of influence. I am sometimes reminded of one of the definitions of the difference between an Oxford man and a Cambridge man: "The Oxford man walks down the street as if he owned it. The Cambridge man walks down the street as if he did not care who owned it." And our attitude is rather the latter.

A great deal of hard and dangerous work went into keeping up contacts, or the means of contact, in spite of the physical isolation. There was clandestine radio listening, under penalty of death. There was intensive use of material smuggled in. For instance, a mimeographed summary, made in Norway, of Willkie's "One World" was a clandestine "best seller." Clandestine papers used material from England and America, to the extent to which it could be procured and was found valuable. (Some of the good long-range clandestine periodicals were to a large extent managed by students or graduates from our English Department at the University. Many of our students were active in clandestine groups where the study material used might include such items as an introduction to and analysis of the American Constitution.)

In the regular teaching one would normally have to make use of prewar material. To use material acquired clandestinely entailed an unjustified risk. And the Nazis were even afraid of the traditional texts. The latter were put to good use, because much of it was material from which conclusions could be drawn that would help build a clearer understanding of essential democratic values. A piece about Newton in the second-year English book gave a good starting point for the discussion of liberty of the press. The pieces in the modern language side of the gymnasium that dealt with 17th Century England, and those that dealt with the American War of Independence offered much material elucidating present day occurrences and so on. The Germans were afraid of it. Certain pieces were for-

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bidden—such as an extract of H. G. Wells' "Joan and Peter" dealing with problems of war and peace. Many teachers carefully informed their pupils about which pieces were forbidden, and thus could feel reasonably sure that the youngsters would read them in their spare time, and with special keenness. One of the first attempts at expurgation was quite funny: an order was sent out that all pieces containing anti-German sentiment in the lower-stage readers should be cut out of the pupils' books. One teacher I know arrived in class with the circular and big paper scissors, after having checked up very carefully on the texts beforehand, so that she knew what the outcome would be. They went through the texts in class looking for the words German or Germany. They found it occurred once only, in a geographical piece about the British Isles. And the context was: "To the East of Britain is the North Sea, or the German Ocean." After careful deliberation they reached the conclusion that this was not anti-German propaganda; and nothing was done to the books.

Already before the invasion the supply of English books in the bookshops had run low, because of the transport difficulties during 1939-40. We thus started the occupation period with short supplies. At the advanced stage this was a tremendous difficulty. We had to establish a planned economy, and our booksellers were most helpful. For university use the student organization provided money to buy all textbooks available, and these were then put into a common pool, and rented to the students, who had to hand them back after their course, in order that no book should lie fallow. But, even so, supplies were inadequate. And an appeal was made to teachers of English, university graduates, to lend or donate their university books to the students. The response was gratifying. The "gift library" was administered by the English students' library committee, and helped greatly to make it at all possible to carry on work.

Other aids in teaching, besides books, presented great problems. We did not have the normal direct contact with speakers of English (normally a large percentage of our students spend some time in England). In 1941 all our radio sets were confiscated. English and American films were no longer shown. So the source of knowledge of the spoken language which the radio and films can provide was also removed. At the University we had to make the utmost of our small but fairly good collection of gramophone records (mainly donated before the war by the British Council). But it was a constant nightmare to think of what if one of the essential records—such as the Armstrong-Ward ones—is broken? Gramophone needles after a while were no more available. We had to sharpen our few fibre needles until nothing was left, and then try to find something to substitute, which was far from easy.

As said, we had to try to get what we could out of prewar material, and attempt to make it as constructively useful as possible; provide objective material that would be effective against German propaganda, and provide mental tools for the nucleus group our students should be. I will cite one instance: A young scholar, Lars Aslakarud, who became my assistant after he graduated in 1941, took over my work after I had to escape. He had close contacts with students, and saw clearly their needs. In the autumn of 1943 he gave a course on "Aims and Traditions of British Education" which the students found a marvelous source of inspiration. During the semester the University got into a very difficult position, and it seemed likely that it would be closed (as it was on November 30th, after large scale arrests of students). The course had led up to the present day—the lecturer also had his clandestine activities, with access to material that had been smuggled in. And for the last lecture he took his life in both hands and presented an analysis of the wartime discussion of educational prob-

lems in Great Britain, culminating with the Butler White Paper on Education. He then went into hiding for a period. If he had been reported to the Gestapo it would have been a most serious case.

Otherwise we had, in the English Department of the University, the difficulty of being terribly understaffed. The chair of English had been vacant since years before the war, and the new chair of literature, established in 1939, had not been filled. With about three hundred students doing advanced English whole time, we were two teachers holding regular appointments, otherwise the teaching was done by substitutes called in, mostly part time, from outside. We had been obliged to tackle these problems in the department before the war, and our students had been public-spirited, and senior students had done a fine job in group work taking care of junior students. This prewar experience was valuable, and these methods were further developed. Actually a major part of the academic teaching was replaced by student activities under a limited amount of guidance. And our students were keenly interested in the problems of their studies. In the faculty of Humanities, of which English has the largest enrollment and, I believe, the smallest staff, there is a student paper, called *Filologen*. It managed to carry on until the autumn of 1941. It is quite significant that in its last number—which the editorial committee made a triple one, using up all the funds for it, as they knew the end had come—six articles out of fourteen dealt with problems of English, four of them with problems of study and research, and two were critical literary essays with a slant of topicality.

It was stated earlier that many people with a good background of knowledge in English were active in patriotic work where their knowledge was of special service. For advanced research this has meant that most of those from whom scholarly contributions might be expected have been too busy to give much time to academic research. There has also been the great problem of research material under isolation. For advanced students it has time and again meant that they have had to give up their first choice of subject for research, and choose something else, for which material was available.

But, one may ask, how were standards kept up under these difficulties attending active work? It has meant that our advanced students have not had the opportunity we would have liked for the widest possible reading, and that they have had to struggle against heavy odds in developing such a thing as oral fluency. But, on the whole, at all levels, the standards in English have been maintained to an amazing degree. The students have gone to their work with a will, they have loved the English language, partly for its intrinsic interest, and partly because learning English well was an act of political resistance.

During the occupation the study of English was one of those values which it was considered particularly imperative to protect. At the same time we looked forward to the day when graduate students and teachers could go abroad again; when the proper books and facilities would also be at our disposal. And we hoped for a time of better conditions than ever before in advanced studies and research.

Aasta Stene, reader in English in the University of Oslo, is occupying the chair of Scandinavian at the University of Wisconsin while Professor Haugen is cultural attaché of the American Embassy in Oslo.



Hörve Meeting House (1880's)

Democracy by Town Hall

BY HAL KOCH

WHEN FIRST in Denmark a democratic form of government slowly emerged, Grundtvig (1783-1872)—the great poet and people's champion—was decidedly opposed to these modern ideas. He had faith in the old monarchy—he was a King's man. It did not take him long, however, to realize that the future belonged to democracy. In a letter to Queen Amalie, the Queen of King Christian VIII, he expressed it thus: one may be for or against democracy, but it is of slight consequence what one chooses; because whether we like it or not popular rule is here. First of all, therefore, we have to concentrate our efforts on one thing—to create that national education which is a necessary prerequisite for a democratic country.

This and many other statements by Grundtvig show that he, with singular clarity, had understood the spirit of de-

mocracy. He understood, perhaps more keenly than anyone else in the 19th Century, that the foundation of a democracy lies in the education and enlightenment of its people.

When democracy—with general and equal electoral rights—was established in Denmark in 1849 the majority of sensible and intelligent people expressed serious doubts. What attitude would the peasantry—the inarticulate and ignorant farmers—take when faced with all the great and complex problems which were of such decisive importance to the future of the nation? Had one asked the country's "great minds" how it would work out, the more pessimistic among them would have shaken their heads; it simply could not work out, such a radical democracy was a complete mistake. The more optimistic might have answered; it will work out because very soon it will become apparent

that the peasantry is not able to handle its own problems and will use its freedom and its right to vote to choose the wisest and best man to rule the country. The ensuing development, however, followed an entirely different course. Already in the first elections, in 1849, it became clear that the peasants were going to vote for their people. The most famous example was the election of Praestø where the well-known university professor, H. N. Clausen, one of the liberal party leaders, was defeated by a former cotton weaver and small farmer who had never gained any greater merits for himself. The following years brought similar results. Many were shocked and several among the supporters of freedom felt forced to join the conservative reaction. But the development continued.

It was the people who had obtained freedom and the right to vote and these rights one did not wish to use for the purpose of turning all power over to others. In this way there arose a democratically minded and politically independent population.

Economically and culturally, too, the peasants learned to take things into their own hands. Thus the large cooperative enterprises were built. In the beginning everyone ridiculed the many small farmers who thought themselves able to organize cooperative dairies. The general opinion was that only the few efficient city men could shoulder such tasks as to establish industrial enterprises and to direct export trade. Accomplishments, however, soon spoke another language. It was the cooperatives that built up a new agriculture to compete with the world's best, and they, to a greater extent than anything else, created the economic foundation of today's Denmark.

To take another example: In the course of the 1860's and 70's many of the peasants came in touch with the Grundtvigian movement. The influence reflected itself, for instance, in the new interest with which the peasants looked at their own

communities. Their eyes fell on the school—and they noticed, rightly, that most of the schools were centers of drudgery with but little spirit left. Had the peasants followed the customs of old, they would either have sat idle and mused that this was none of their concern or they would have turned to the minister or country squire asking them to do something. Instead the unheard-of happened: they joined forces and took charge themselves. One found a teacher who had the right spirit and energy, another arranged for a building, a third went out to collect money. This done, they took their children out of the public school—the school which was generally regarded as a gift to the country from God and the King. It came close to a revolt. They established their own free schools which, without doubt, became the very best schools we have had—in almost all fields forerunners of modern teaching methods and still today educational models.

The core of a democratic society lies neither in parliament nor in the big political parties, but in those popular movements which have a bearing upon the life of the individual and upon the life of the country village. To put it more simply: the town hall is more important than the parliament building. The town hall is a peculiar thing. It can be found in practically every Danish village, while something corresponding to it is seldom seen abroad.

What, then, is the meeting-house and how did it come into being? During the time between 1864 and 1900 meeting-houses sprang up by the thousands. As a rule it was a group of peasants who had been to high school that was behind the project. They persuaded the men of the community to buy stock—in itself something new thus to financially engage the population in one definite project. Outwardly the result was seldom very impressive: a small, dull house with a hall that had room for about 150 to 200 people, with a cloak-room in one end and a

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kitchen in the other. From a spiritual standpoint, however, the building was the more glorious. In very many ways it became a center of activities. Here the young people could devote themselves to athletics—during just those years, too, the shooting-clubs and athletic associations started to flourish—and here the lecturing societies could hold their meetings. The lecturing societies which up to that time had been unknown, were a direct outgrowth of the high schools. In schools one had become accustomed to listen to the "living word"; one had become used to hear forceful and inspiring speeches on timely topics. Such speeches one did not wish to do without, upon returning to the home community. Once again it was proved that the inarticulate and ignorant peasants were well able to act. They joined forces and invited guest speakers. For such programs the meeting-house was, of course, essential. Here one could gather to listen to the speaker, here one could assemble after the lecture around the coffee table and listen to more good words from the speaker, from the minister, from the teacher of the community or from anyone who wished to speak his mind.

In the town hall, too, the agricultural society held its meetings and general assemblies. In these small, humble-looking houses people gathered for the purpose of founding the first dairies and slaughter-houses, and many are the organizational meetings that through the years have taken place in them. If there was to be a feast in the community—a silver wedding for instance—the number of guests was often so large that the party was held in the meeting-house. Here, also, the young people held their dances and parties.

It would be pretentious to compare these meeting-houses to what in America has been called "community-centers." The former were of too humble a character to justify such a comparison. Nevertheless they remain as a testimony of awakening national life. It is remarkable how they sprang up, one after the other, during

that whole period when movements and organizations were still young and fresh.

Then came a time of deterioration. The closer we come to the war of 1914-18, the more we find the building of meeting-houses slackening, and increasing complaints were heard over the abuse of the meeting-houses: the young people only used them for dances—a sensible word inside the walls was seldom heard. Outwardly they deteriorated; nobody was interested in their upkeep and many evenings a week they stood silent and empty. Only on Saturday and Sunday nights shouts were heard from wild parties at which liquor flowed and immorality flourished. The complaints grew still stronger during the time between the two world wars. It came to the point where an organization was founded for the purpose of restoring the meeting-houses to their proper use.

The twenties and the early thirties were the lean years in regard to the activities in the meeting-houses, but already in the later part of the thirties one could discern again an upward trend—if only in the fact that in many places new meeting-houses were built or the old torn down and replaced by new. These more modern houses were generally called "community halls." They were more handsome than the old ones, and, as a rule, the community itself stood for the whole or part of the cost. Then in 1940 came the war. Curiously enough war brought with it, during the occupation, renewed efforts in all national educational work. Never have so many meetings been held and so many lectures given in Denmark as during the years 1940-43. These meetings were not only an outlet for national sentiments. Least of all was this true of the small gatherings in the country villages where the chief concern was to give people a deep understanding of the fight against Germanism and Nazism, while at the same time providing political information not allowed to be printed in the newspapers. Equally important was to contribute to a

positive, democratic, political education. Under these conditions the usefulness of the meeting-houses was fully understood. Once more they became the seat of all intellectual and political life. Under the circumstances it was only natural that during the first war years, when building materials were still available, new, beautiful houses were erected in many localities. These buildings had not only a large and festive hall, with room for 200 to 400 people, equipped with a stage, but often also a smaller hall as well as a couple of rooms for study groups. In some cases the building also housed a library with a small reading room. The meeting-house was indeed about to become a "community center." Most likely this development will continue and grow stronger when now, that the war is over, we return to normal conditions. In numerous communities plans have been made and blueprints worked out for such assembly houses.

If nothing else has done so, the political crisis of the last fifteen years in Europe has at least taught us what an immense role the education of the young plays in society. From a political standpoint this is probably the most important problem. There is, however, another aspect to be considered: the working hours have been shortened, the amount of leisure has grown—all of which naturally represents tremendous progress. The result, then, should be that the young people would properly utilize their free time through activities of various kinds: sports, cultural, and religious gatherings, study groups and general social activities. If all this is to be put into effect and correspond to expectations, it is clear that the neces-

sary "tools" have to be created such as athletic fields and community houses. These building projects will constitute one of the most important national tasks. For a long time already, architects, leaders of clubs and associations, ministers and teachers have discussed the matter. Time has brought increased demands. Many consider it extremely important that quarters be provided for free time occupations such as handicraft, home economics, and table tennis. It is, however, mostly in the cities that such demands are put forth. In the rural areas the lecture and athletic halls, rooms for study groups and libraries are the most important.

The development of the old, primitive meeting-house into the large, modern community hall, is a reflection of the democratic development of modern society. Common work by which the individual matures and becomes independent attaining the feeling of being a responsible part, not a slave, of society, is the very core of life in a democratic country. In Denmark we remember that the ancient Greek democracies fell to the dictators when the citizen surrendered his privacy and asked the state to manage his affairs. We here in Denmark have a happy and strong tradition, dating back to the last century, on which to build, a tradition which during the recent war years received new life. This tradition finds its visible expression in the old meeting-houses, still standing as a testimony of the contribution of our grandparents as well as in the new, handsome community halls which are already rising throughout our land and which we hope will rise in greater numbers during the coming years.

Hal Koch is professor of Church History in Copenhagen University and author of several books on the Church of Denmark and of a popular work about N. F. S. Grundtvig.

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A Danish American

BY ALVIN JOHNSON

IF I REGARDED the honor you have conferred on me as specifically directed to me personally, I should be too abashed to speak at all. I am a democrat, and do not admit that any person has such signal merit that he should be accorded a special place among his fellows. But my position is essentially that of a representative of the multitude of men and women, good and true, who have worked faithfully with me in my various enterprises, and have made possible whatever successes I may have had. In trust for them I accept the honor with deep gratitude, as I accepted the cooperation of my associates with deep gratitude.

And while I am acknowledging my indebtedness, I wish to acknowledge my debt to Scandinavia, the land of my forefathers, and to America, the land of my children and my children's children. Although I first saw the light on the Western prairie, so much of Danish culture survived in my family that I have had reason to feel myself in a sense a link between the two cultures. Each has contributed to my way of life.

From American culture I drew the principle that all men are created equal. I think I was nearly six when I first heard the Declaration of Independence read, at a Fourth of July celebration. Much of the document bored me, but I can still remember how puzzled I was over the notion that all men were created equal. Being not quite six I had incipient Fascist tendencies and regarded Indians, who ate dogs, as very inferior. But my mother asked me if I didn't think that all ants were created equal, some being big, because they had to live in hollow trees, others little because they had to live in the wainscoting. To my childish mind all this was a mystery, a mystery in the true

sense of the term, that is, a truth you acknowledge as such although it is not given you to understand.

The land of my forefathers had never formulated the principle of the equality of man. It had lived the principle, and for hundreds of years the Danish peasant would accord no superiority even to the king except as Landens Fader—Father of the country—who commanded his loyalty not as an inferior, but as a loyal son. There was another principle in Danish life never formulated because it seemed obvious: All men were created to be friends.

There was never a pogrom in Scandinavia. It has been said that there were no Jews in Scandinavia. That is not true; the proportion of Jews in Scandinavia has always been greater than in Germany. There has never been a color line in Scandinavia. I have talked in my unspeakably bad Danish with Danish Negroes from the Virgin Islands. They do not find themselves differentiated from other people in Copenhagen.

We of Scandinavian blood, if we will be frank with ourselves, must admit that we are an arrogant lot. We are so confident in the color of our skin that we do not fear that it will rub off, if we come in contact with persons of all the colors of the rainbow. We are so confident in our inherited culture that we expect from other cultures, not contamination, but enrichment. We are by nature, and would like to be, friends of all the world. Pity that the world generates Nazis and Fascists and other deep dyed scoundrels. But we believe that the fatal diseases of inhuman ideologies will pass away, as in its time the Black Death passed away.

We Americans, too, wish to be friends of all the world. We, too, are an arrogant

lot, and except when we are animated by corrupt political propaganda, are confident in the indelible character of Americanism and the culture of America. Super-refined foreign visitors may turn up their noses at our materialism. We are materialistic, I allow. God forgive me, but if anyone offered me my choice between one dollar or two, other things equal, I'd take two.

But this materialistic America of ours gives more money for idealistic causes in one year than all Europe has given in all the time since Charlemagne. In this America of ours an alien with small English can charter a Model T Ford, and drive through Pensacola to San Pedro, and up to Sedro Woolly on the Canadian border, and back through the Northwest, without ever once encountering anything but the utmost friendliness and helpfulness. Myself, who have too many decades behind me, can testify that never yet have I needed a friend without finding him in the next man, or at worst, in the next but one.

If I were to make the most general characterization of Americans, we give generously and, what is more rare, we take generously. And having these two virtues, God will surely forgive us for our other shortcomings, though they blaze like scarlet.

We Americans are a league of peoples, foreshadowing the world organization that is to come. Every race, every nationality, has its representatives among us, with whom, for the most part, we live in harmony. Of course we are human—which amounts to saying we are a bit inhuman. Those of us who got here first are a bit disposed to look crookedly at those who

got here next. The Puritans were very unfriendly to the Quakers—for a while; the Anglo Americans were hostile to the German refugees from the Palatinate and the refugees from the Huguenot persecution; the descendants of all these viewed with alarm the influx of Irish, of liberal Germans and later, of Scandinavians. Later still we all joined in viewing with alarm the influx of refugees from Tsarist pogroms, and we are not through viewing with alarm the refugees from the murderous hatred of Hitler.

We are strong on priorities, and we confound priority with virtue, intelligence, usefulness.

Some years ago I was on a Pullman bound for the west. In the same car was a robust young Slovak, an employee of Henry Ford, together with an eager, bright-eyed younger Slovak, burning with enthusiasm over everything he saw from the car window. His enthusiasm was so flagrant that the Ford employee had to apologize to me.

"Him my brother. Him damn fool. Him no spik English. Him no American, yet."

I would like to erect a statue to that Ford employee, with the inscription, "Him American, already."

We Americans, we Scandinavians, have our faults, God wot. We are too narrow, too materialistic, too arrogant. But God will forgive us, because we are two peoples who do look forward and strive forward toward the era when perverse national ambitions, perverse ideologies, shall cease to torture and slaughter men, and the humblest may stand upright under the blue sky, confident that the next man is his friend, destined not to curb and narrow his life but to enrich it.

Alvin Johnson delivered the above address January 10, 1946, at a dinner given in his honor by The American-Scandinavian Foundation after his retirement as Director (1922-1945) of The New School.

The Leap

BY THORIR BERGSSON

Translated from the Icelandic by AXEL EYBERG and JOHN WATKINS

I WELL REMEMBER that evening—for a number of reasons. It was the first Christmas I had not been at home with my parents. I was studying that winter with Archdeacon Sigurd of Stad. I had just got on to my feet again after a rather serious attack of pneumonia and was still far from well. But the evening is chiefly memorable to me on account of the incident of which I am now going to tell.

We were all sitting around the Christmas table. The farm of Stad is a long distance from the sea, up among the valleys. It is almost twenty-five miles out to the market town on the coast and you have to cross over the ridge to get there. Although this ridge is not high, it is often difficult travelling in winter. It is flat on top and it is hard to find your way there in snowstorms and darkness.

There was a light in every corner—no shadow anywhere, as is the custom at Christmas time. For this was Christmas Eve. It was warm and comfortable in the largest room and there sat all the family, some twenty people. All but one—Sveinbjörn, the hired man.

But outside a blizzard from the north raged over the roof. It had burst forth suddenly in the evening, or rather in the late afternoon as darkness came on, and had steadily increased in violence. We all knew that this was just the beginning.

Everyone felt uneasy. Of course we all had confidence in Sveinbjörn, for he was an exceptionally capable man and well used to difficult journeys. But the reason for his absence was that in the morning a farmer from up in the parish had come in mortal terror and begged the archdeacon to lend him a man and horses to fetch the

doctor. The weather looked ominous and the roads were very bad. If it got any worse, it would be impossible to travel with horses.

Sveinbjörn was of course sent off at once with four horses. He had often before risked his life in blizzards and other great dangers. And now a woman in childbirth was waiting out there in the country for the only help it seemed possible to bring her. It remained to be seen whether this attempt would be successful or perhaps cause others to lose their lives.

Therefore all of us who sat around the Christmas table that evening were uneasy in our minds.

"They ought to be here by this time," said the archdeacon, "even if they had to leave the horses behind at Höfdi. And it seems likely to me that they would have to do so."

"I don't think much of this new doctor," said Brandur, the hired man. "He's a puny wretch. I'll bet Sveinbjörn has had to carry him, just about. Damned if I don't think so, just about."

"He doesn't look very strong," said the archdeacon's wife, "and perhaps hardly able for these terrible journeys. I suppose you know him, Jon?"

Jon, the archdeacon's son, who had recently become sheriff of the district, was at home with his parents for Christmas. He had come up from the Fjord the day before. He had been sitting silent at the table, lost in thought, but now he looked up.

"Yes, I know him slightly," he said, "but we were not much together. He kept pretty much to himself at school—but I do know that he is rather timid. I shall tell you how I came to find out. A few of

us fellows were together. We were having a good time. We went out and were just in the mood for playing pranks, and did so too. We were not much more than children at the time; at least it didn't take much to arouse the mischief in us. So we walked down to the pier, the sea had torn a gap in it, quite a wide gap, toward the far end. There was a stiff breeze from the north and the sea was rough. The fellow who was in the lead was a foolhardy chap. He took a run and leaped across the gap. He found it all he could do to get a footing on the other side, it was such a long leap and the boards were slippery. But he turned around and dared us to follow him. We were four in all and two jumped over at once, but Gudmundur, the doctor, stood there alone. We shouted to him. 'I won't leap over,' said he. 'You don't dare,' said I. He did not answer. 'You don't dare!' We laughed and made fun of him. 'No, I don't dare,' said he. 'It's not at all sure that you could save me if I fell in the sea, and the posts are so slippery that it's doubtful whether I could hold myself up by them while you were fetching a boat.'

"I see clearly now when I think of it that what he said was quite true—but we had not considered the danger at all, and I do not believe that any man of courage would do so under the circumstances. I can't imagine how a man can be capable and bold if he is always thinking whether this or that could be dangerous and never dares to take a chance, even though it is only in fun."

"I never heard of such a damned coward," said Brandur. "I'm sure I would have jumped, just about."

"There is no doubt," said the archdeacon, "that Gudmundur did the right thing in not jumping. Yet I agree with you, Jon, that a man of courage would have jumped even if he had not been sure that he could make it. And God help the weak and timid outside in this weather. God help the poor woman and her husband."

"Isn't it terrible?" said Solveig, the archdeacon's daughter, and her eyes flashed with anger. "Wouldn't it be simply awful if Sveinbjörn had to stop over night with the doctor somewhere out in the district and the woman should die just because of his cowardice?"

"We should not judge too harshly," said her mother. "Sveinbjörn is a capable man, as we all know, but still this is really fearful weather; just listen to it. God Almighty, I believe it's getting worse all the time."

We became silent and listened. It was as if the house were being pelted with stones.

"It's a deuce of an ugly commotion it's making," said Brandur. "I just about think I can't remember the like of it."

Just then Gudrun, the maid, came in; she had been out in the kitchen. "I think somebody is trying to get into the house," she said, "but I didn't dare go to the door alone."

We all ran out in haste and opened the door. It faced away from the storm, but outside could be seen the swirling blizzard, which came reeling in on the floor. And in out of this fury came a tall, thin man all covered with snow.

It was Dr. Gudmundur.

"Good-evening," he said in a loud voice. "Come out with me at once, some of you, and help get him home."

"Where is Sveinbjörn?" asked the archdeacon.

"He took sick on the way," said the doctor. "I managed to get him to the shelter of the hill nearby, but when I saw the light, I left him. You can't see the light very far now. Come and help me to bring him in."

We got our hats and went out to fetch Sveinbjörn. We supported him home and into the house. "This terrible faintness came over me," he moaned as we were bringing him in. "The doctor almost had to carry me all the way from Storhol."

The doctor stopped in the hall. "Have

you heard any news of the woman?" he asked.

We told him we had not and invited him in.

"No, I'll not come in, for the snow on my clothes will melt. But I must ask you, Archdeacon, to let someone go on with me, because I don't know the way," he smiled.

The archdeacon hesitated a little.

"Now that Sveinbjörn has failed," he said, "I hardly know who it should be in this weather."

The doctor looked over the group and his eye lighted on the sheriff.

"Oh, of course, you're here, Jon," he said happily. "What luck! You were brought up here and certainly know every hillock. You'll come with me!"

The sheriff was silent a moment.

"Well?" said the doctor.

"Of course I'm well acquainted," said the sheriff, somewhat embarrassed, "but I don't know whether . . . I think you ought to come in and have something to eat and see if the storm doesn't let up this evening or tonight."

The doctor looked at him and grinned.

"All right!" he said. "So you won't take the leap!"

Then he turned to the archdeacon.

"Is there anyone here who'll come with me?" he asked. "Say so at once, for I must on no account delay. I have made this trip once before, so perhaps I can make it alone. I never lost my bearings this evening, but of course it was Sveinbjörn who directed the journey."

"Brandur?" said the archdeacon and looked inquiringly at the hired man.

But Brandur stood first on one foot and then on the other in the middle of the floor.

"I'll be damned if I'm not afraid, just about," said he.

Solveig came out from the group.

"Give me men's clothes," she said, "and I'll go with him."

The doctor laughed a short, merry laugh.

"No, young lady," he said, "for although I have no doubt you could find the way, this weather is hardly for you."

"If I were your age, Brandur," said Asmundur, the old cowherd, "I wouldn't stand there like a fool."

Just then the door opened suddenly and a man came in. It was the husband of the woman the doctor was going to see.

"Has the doctor come?" he asked. "It occurred to me that he might not be able to get any farther. Gudrun says she will not live till morning if she doesn't get help." He turned to the doctor and took him by the arm. "For God's sake come with me," he said. "If you are exhausted, I can carry you."

"I'm not exhausted," said the doctor. "Here is my bag; you can carry that but not me."

In the doorway he turned around.

"Oh, by the way," he said, "I wish you all a Merry Christmas. I had almost forgotten it *was* Christmas." He nodded his head to us, cheerfully.

Then he disappeared out into the storm and darkness.

Thorir Bergsson is the pseudonym of Thorsteinn Jonsson, a bank clerk in Reykjavik, who has won distinction as a short story writer. His "The Smile" appeared in the REVIEW for December 1944

THE QUARTER'S HISTORY



DENMARK

FROM THE SHORES of Denmark's rocky island, Bornholm, came the first rays of light to rend ominous darkness of the Russo-Iranian dispute covering the international horizon before and during the session of the United Nations Security Council convening in New York on March 25th. The commander of the Russian occupation forces on Bornholm, who on May 9th last year had liberated this part of Denmark—also called “the Malta of the Baltic”—suddenly informed Governor Stemmann that the patiently awaited evacuation of the troops would begin immediately and that the last troops would be leaving the island during the first days of April.

Relations have been excellent between the population and the foreign troops, language difficulties and other differences notwithstanding, and the Russian officials have on several occasions declared that the reason for their presence on Bornholm was the liberation of the island from the Germans, that Bornholm geographically was located behind the Soviet demarcation line on the continent, and that the island would be evacuated as soon as certain problems had been solved.

On April 1st, New York newspapers brought pictures showing Danish troops reoccupying Roenne, the capital of Bornholm, and thus, in one tiny speck of the world, Senator Vandenberg's question: “What

is Russia up to?” had been satisfactorily answered.

No American soldiers are now stationed in Denmark with the exception of those who are vacationing there as guests of the Danish people. A small number of British troops remained to liquidate certain tasks connected with the disposal of remaining German war materials, while a contingent of R.A.F. personnel have been requested to remain in order to help the Danish authorities solve some technical problems. The Farøe Islands, which



*General Dwight D. Eisenhower
Knight of the Elephant*

were occupied by the British during the war, have for all practical purposes been evacuated.

As a MEMBER OF UNRRA Denmark is carrying her share of the burden to alleviate the need in other less fortunate countries in Europe. Since the liberation

As an immediate step the Danish government has decided to deliver fish to a value of five million Kroner and 10,000 horses as Denmark's contribution to UNRRA, and great quantities of beef and pork and live cattle are available when sufficient shipping is placed at Denmark's disposal.



The Elephant

butter, fat, and other rations have been reduced, and the exports of food products have steadily increased. Danish doctors, scientists, and food specialists have requested the Government to make still greater cuts in the Danish diet. A reduction of some seven to eight percent, they said, would make it possible to help between five and ten million starving people during the first critical six months until the new harvest has been brought home from the fields.

THE DANISH PRIME MINISTER, Knud Kristensen, has called attention to the fact that it costs Denmark three percent of her national income to feed the unwanted German refugees who are still in Denmark. Denmark has great production of food, but must use part of her production to secure fresh imports of new agricultural machinery, fertilizer, cottonseed cake, and other fodder from the U.S.A., South America, and the Far East. He stated that it would not be possible to make further reductions in the diets of the young and of the hard working laborers.

DURING THE FIRST NINE months since the Liberation, the Danish relief organization Save The Children has done a magnificent work. Almost 3,000,000 Kroner has been collected, partly through private contributions and partly in public funds. Holland, Poland, Hungary, France, Norway, and Italy have been helped through this organization and, in addition, gift packages have been sent to Holland to a total value of one and one half million Kroner.

FORMER MINISTER OF DEFENSE Ole Bjørn Kraft, one of the Danish delegates to the assembly of UN in London, believes that the small nations should be more assertive. He called the \$15,000

budget granted the Danish Information Service in New York wholly insufficient.

We must take care, said Mr. Kraft, that we do not return to the mentality prevailing before 1940 that everything will be all right if we remain inconspicuous and small. A live and energetic cooperation within the United Nations is essential. Hundreds of possibilities will pass us by if we do not know the world and see to it that the world knows us. We must get out of the present standstill. It is time to wake up and continue the fight for Denmark's future under new forms. Little Denmark must again make her presence and her culture evident in the new community of nations.

THE DANISH MERCHANT MARINE has suffered grievous losses during the war, and the facts and figures that are now available speak for themselves. At the outbreak of the war Denmark had 556 seagoing ships of 100 gross tons and upward with a total tonnage of well over one million tons gross. The German submarine warfare took a heavy toll of ships and men already before the occupation, while new weapons, magnetic mines, air attacks were introduced. During this period Denmark lost 29 ships and 345 Danish sailors lost their lives.

On the 9th of April, 1940, two thirds of the remaining ships were on the high seas, or in neutral or belligerent ports, and sooner or later they were all put into allied service. 116 of the ships that sailed for the Allies during the war were lost. The number of casualties among

the Danish sailors is estimated at 1,400, which means that ten percent of the 14,000 officers and men normally employed by the merchant fleet have given their lives in the fight against the common enemies. The total war reduction of the Danish merchant fleet amounts to 250 ships with a total of 590,000 gross tons, a reduction of nearly fifty-five percent.



*Elephant Order for Eisenhower
Incorporated A.D. 1460*

THE DANISH PARLIAMENT has ratified the Bretton Woods arrangements calling for establishment of an International Bank and Monetary Fund within the

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framework of the United Nations to extend credits and stabilize international exchange relations. The director of the Danish National Bank, Valdemar Bramsnaes, attended the conference in Savannah, Georgia, where officials were elected to the Bank and the Fund. He was accompanied from Denmark by two Danish officials, Mr. Sveinbjørnsson from the Ministry of Commerce and Mr. Dige from the Treasury Department. They arrived by air from Copenhagen on one of the American Overseas Airlines' flagships and continued to Savannah accompanied by Count Bent Ahlefeldt-Laurvigen, financial advisor to the Danish Legation in Washington. The Danish Government has been assessed a quota of \$68,000,000 as Denmark's contribution to the International Bank and a like amount to the Monetary Fund.

IN PROTEST against the slow pace of the trial of war criminals a general strike was called in Copenhagen in February. With the exception of hospitals, water, and electricity works and other essential industries the strike was total; even the street cars and the taxis were stopped. The press, however, condemned this form of protest as a dangerous attempt to interfere with justice.

ONE OF THE GRAVEST PROBLEMS remaining on the road toward normal conditions in Denmark is the refugee situation. More than 210,000 German refugees who made their way to Denmark during the last days of the war are still to be disposed of. Some 60,000 of these are in Copenhagen, where they until recently were interned and housed in school buildings, a menace to the health of the population.

So far Denmark has been unable to get rid of the unwanted guests. The Russian occupation zone of Germany is her-

metically sealed, and the British and American zones have problems sufficient. At the United Nations meeting in London, Foreign Minister Gustav Rasmussen presented the insufferable situation to the delegates, many of whom were totally unaware of the facts. Denmark has no obligation, moral or otherwise, toward these people and she neither will nor can absorb this great undesirable foreign element. Not only does their upkeep cost Denmark three percent of her national income, but they are as much of a menace to the peace and security of the world as the great influx of Germans from all parts of the defunct Third Reich in the southern part of Slesvig where they have doubled the pre-war population.

It is the pressure of the Germans from the south that Denmark has been fighting during all of her history. Seen with the eyes of the world, said Mr. Rasmussen in an interview in Denmark, the Slesvig question is of minor importance, but a solution is being sought and some improvements have been brought about. The Danish minority south of the Danish border has been recognized, and Danish teachers, doctors, and clergy have been permitted to go to South Slesvig to help these people who generation after generation have formed a living bulwark against the German threat and who against their will, time and again in less than one century, have been forced to send their sons to war in the German armies. The Slesvig question may seem small and insignificant seen with the eyes of the world, but it is as vital today as in 1848 and 1864, when Denmark fought the Germans alone and nobody came to her assistance. Had Prussia been stopped then and there in her mad dreams of world conquest, her war against Austria in 1866, against France in 1870, and the two world conflagrations in our century might well have been avoided.



ICELAND

ON JANUARY 27 municipal elections were held in all the towns of Iceland. The results did not show any marked trend since the last election in 1942, and only few seats were changed. In Reykjavik the Progressives won one seat from the Social Democrats. In Akureyri the Conservatives and the Social Democrats each won one seat from the Progressives and the Communists. In Isafjordur the Conservatives won one seat from the Social Democrats. Other changes were of little importance. The general opinion seems to be that the peak of the strength of the Communists has been passed. The Communists do not agree!

THE WEATHER in Iceland has this winter been unusually mild. During the whole winter there has only been frost a few days, and snow has never been lying on the lowlands for more than two days. The weather has, however, been somewhat stormy, and a violent storm from the west caught a great number of small boats on the fishing banks on February ninth. Owing to the sunspots and electrical storms prevalent at the time, radio communication was impossible and no warnings could be issued. Iceland suffered the loss of twenty young fishermen and four fishing boats through this combination of unfortunate circumstances.

THE ICELANDIC NATIONAL LEAGUE held its annual convention in Winnipeg in the end of February. Professor Richard Beck, who has been the President for six years, had announced that he could not serve any longer owing to pressure of other work. Reverend Valdimar J. Eylands, the former Vice-Presi-

dent, was elected President. During the Presidency of Dr. Beck the League has flourished as never before, and everybody acclaims his energetic and tactful leadership.

THE ICELANDIC COMMUNITY OF AMERICA mourns the loss of one of its outstanding members. Professor Sveinbjorn Johnson died on March 19th, sixty three years old. He has served as attorney general of North Dakota and as justice of its Supreme Court. In 1926 he resigned to become professor of law at the University of Illinois. He was also a scholar and wrote some studies on the Icelandic Freestate and was engaged in a translation and annotation of the Icelandic Grágás, the oldest lawbook existent in Scandinavia. This work, however, was so far advanced that it probably can be published posthumously.

PROFESSOR SIGURDUR NORDAL has surprised his compatriots in Iceland by publishing a drama called *Uppstigning* ("The Ascension"). The play was shown anonymously on the stage of Reykjavik, was well received and much discussed. Apart from his many literary studies, which are ranked as the best of their class by scholars, he has, several years ago, issued a book of short stories.

ICELANDERS are somewhat worried at their trade balance with the United States. Their principal export markets are in Europe, which can only supply very few of their needs. The trade balance for 1945 was adverse to the tune of fifty-two million kronas (imports 319 million kronas against exports of 267 million kronas). The monetary position towards foreign countries has, however, been reduced by ninety-five million kronas, mostly from the dollar accounts. This has caused considerable diminishing in the purchases from the United States.



THE FIRST QUARTER of 1946 has been typified by a quickened popular interest in international relations. Any Norwegian survey covering these months may be headed by a reference to that country's increasing

participation in world affairs, and to the significant honor extended Norway by the nomination of UN Secretary General Trygve Lie. A typical reaction was that of Prime Minister Gerhardsen when informed of the choice: "It's rather hard," he admitted, "for it looks as though Norway is loosing her able Foreign Minister. On the other hand, it is a great honor for Norway that a Norwegian should become the Organization's first Secretary General—I see in this vote a gratifying recognition of Norway's independent position within the United Nations." Lie, who is a man to acknowledge realities and act accordingly, extended two warnings during his recent visit to Norway: UN supporters should expect no miracles, rather should they prepare for hard work. The second warning was an oft repeated reminder that war time coalitions have never survived peace time differences, and that the only hope of large and small nations alike rests with the UN. Embassy Counselor L. J. Jorstad was named Norwegian Observer at the Hunter College meetings.

On Saturday, February 2, just one hour before Trygve Lie was sworn in as the UN's first Secretary General, Prime Minister Gerhardsen named his successor: Halvard Lange, Norwegian Labor Party specialist in foreign affairs. Since his release from Sachsenhausen concentration camp last spring Mr. Lange has played an active part in forming Labor's foreign program and both education and long residence abroad have further qualified for him the key position. Four days

later, Dr. Helge Klaestad, Norwegian Supreme Court Justice, was elected to the fifteen-man International Court of Justice by the UN Assembly and Security Council.

DURING THE FOLLOWING MONTH Norway participated actively in two major international conferences convening in the United States. On Tuesday, March 5, Mr. Gunnar Jahn, President of the Bank of Norway and Norway's Governor of the International Monetary Funds and the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development arrived in Washington, D.C. en route to the Savannah meeting of that group. A few days later, another Norwegian delegation headed by Ambassador Wilhelm Morgenstjerne departed for the UNRRA Conference in Atlantic City, N. J. Here, Mr. Morgenstjerne called for uncompromising efforts to guarantee that in event of famine in Europe, the formerly occupied countries be given a first food priority.



Norwegian Official Photo W. 7237

Trygve Lie

He indicated that, despite severe shortages, Norway would be willing to share fish, fish oils, and chemicals with her more needy neighbors.

IN MARCH, Oslo was the scene of vigorous anti-Franco demonstrations. Opposition to the Spanish dictator was voiced by three thousand parading students. Although Norway imports such essentials as zinc ore, salt, potash, and super-phosphates from Spain, Foreign Minister Lange stated that Norway would be willing to forego these imports for any collective action to establish democracy in Spain.

OF PRIMARY INTEREST on the domestic political front was the presentation of the Government's budget for the year ending June 30, 1946. Aside from the gratifying report that Norway's foreign indebtedness had been reduced by \$200,000,000 during the war years, the remainder of the budget was a grim and illuminating affair, clearly showing the effect of five years of occupation. National income declined from 4,738,000,000 Kr. in 1939 to what is expected to be considerably less than four billion Kroner in 1945. The total net decline of Norway's national wealth may be estimated at 4,800,000,000 Kr.

By early March, however, the war profits tax, known as the "Engangs Skatt" had been subjected to a final Governmental review before presentation to the Storting. Based on information obtained through last year's currency exchange, asset declaration, and property registration, the new tax will hit hard and true. According to the terms of the proposed bill, capital increases of 5,000 Kr. (\$1,000) plus an additional 1,000 Kr. for each dependent will be tax free. Capital increases above that figure, however, will be hard hit by a sharply graduated scale providing for a 30% tax on the first 10,000 Kr., 50% on the next 20,000, 70% on the next

40,000 Kr. and a 95% tax on any amounts in excess of this figure, with all taxes payable in 1947.

THE GOVERNMENT'S FOUR-YEAR BUILDING PLAN recently outlined by Minister of Supply and Reconstruction Oscar Torp calls for the completion of 100,000 apartments, 18,600 of which are to be constructed by the end of 1946. Of these, 3,600 will be erected in Nazi-ravaged Finnmark and Troms, 2,000 in other war-damaged districts, while the remaining 13,000 will help relieve the general housing shortage. Due to the scarcity of lumber, this year's project will call for 7,000 apartments of brick and concrete, of which 5,000 will be constructed in large complexes. Trained laborers, of which 50,000 will be needed to carry out the program, have been promised by the building trade unions, entailing a sizeable training program.

A short survey of the industrial picture reveals a slow but significant progress. Trade figures for the month of January 1946 show an unfavorable balance of approximately 34 million Kroner. January exports of 65 million represent, however, a considerable improvement over 43 million for December and 28 million for November. The most significant gains were noted in exports of fish and fish products which rose from 10 million Kr. in December to over 23 million the following month.

GENERALLY SPEAKING, supplies are stiffening with the increasing threat of starvation on the continent. It is expected that this will lead to a reduction of food imports from abroad. Present supplies of grains, fats, and sugar, all of which are extremely short on the world market, must be carefully rationed in order to last through the emergency period. And the hope of an early lifting of milk rationing is apt to be effected by world action bearing upon the disposition of

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available feed grains. The meat ration, now 1.1 lbs. per person per month, will decrease during the summer months until fall butchering brings new supplies on the market, while any improvement in the egg situation is not anticipated before the spring of 1947.

Shortages of certain materials, skilled labor, and the decreased efficiency of worn out machinery has been slowing the production of men's clothing. Despite adequate supplies of raw wool and cotton, Norway's limited spinning facilities have made it necessary to farm out spinning contracts abroad. With thousands of tons of raw material being processed in Finland, Belgium, and Italy, shipping difficulties have slowed deliveries of both raw materials and finished products. Shoe production has climbed steadily since liberation until in the month of January 225,000 pairs were produced, this figure being 90% of normal. Production of rubber footwear, on the other hand, is 60% below 1939, due to a shortage of skilled labor. The unprecedented demand backlog will postpone any early return to normalcy in this particular field. Imports of coke and coal have fallen some 120,000 tons per month below import schedules, and it is already apparent that private homes must be heated by wood for yet another winter. Supplies of iron and steel, though sufficient at the present time, will be inadequate to supply reconstruction needs should imports be halted for any appreciable time.

Coal imports under the Norwegian-Polish coal-herring trade, negotiated in August of 1945 and long delayed by a transportation bottleneck in Poland, may soon be moving again, according to recent advice from Warsaw. At one period Norway had agreed to loan Poland 400 coal cars and twelve locomotives to speed delivery, but it now appears that an unan-

anticipated decrease in Russia's rolling stock demands will release the needed facilities. Shipments of 100,000 barrels of herring and cod liver oil, Norway's share of the trade, had reached Poland by late January, while only limited quantities of Polish coal have yet reached Norwegian ports.

WITH THE DELIVERY of new ships already contracted for in Swedish, Danish, and British yards, Norway's total merchant tonnage is expected to exceed 4,000,000 tons by 1948. Following liberation, more contracts were let to Danish and British firms until by the end of January, orders for 925,000 tons had been concluded with yards abroad. To this figure must be added tonnage under construction in Norwegian yards, most of which are booked up for at least three years in advance. A recent proposal by the Norwegian Government suggesting that a sum up to \$25,000,000 be appropriated for the purchase of American ships to be resold to Norwegian firms may result in the procurement of ten Liberty Ships, four cargo liners, and eight tankers, all built between 1943 and 1945, and chartered to Norway at the present time.

A FINAL WORD on the progress of the treason trials may well be headed by a note on the aged Knut Hamsun. Psychiatrists who for several weeks had been probing the mind of the eighty-seven-year old author have declared him mentally defunct, afflicted with a progressively weakening ability to distinguish between right and wrong. Charged with treason, the aged writer is still criminally responsible for his conduct during the occupation, and, though no sentence was passed, monetary compensation will be demanded.



SWEDEN

"WHAT DIFFERENCE OF OPINION there might be between Sweden and Norway must be clarified, so that no feelings of suspicion or bitterness be left between the two countries," the Norwegian foreign minister, Halvard Lange, said in an interview published in March in the Oslo daily *Verdens Gang*. "The Swedes and the Norwegians should now further strengthen their ties, which are very close, because of their common culture and practically common language, and also because of the fact that the two peoples mean exactly the same thing when they speak of democracy. Norway is interested in expanding her co-operation with Sweden in all fields. To work for a Swedish-Norwegian union, federation, or military alliance would be to pursue a policy of illusions, but the two countries can very well cooperate within the frame of their membership in UN." In regard to the Swedish Government's bill, proposing that Sweden be prepared to accept the responsibility of membership in UN, the Norwegian Minister said, "This step I greet with great satisfaction." He added that personally he was entirely in favor of a Norwegian "white paper" on the relations between Norway and Sweden during the war, and would see to it that such a documentary survey is published as soon as possible. "Everything must be made public. Even if we Norwegians found it difficult to understand why Sweden felt she had to go as far as she did at times in temporizing with the Germans, we certainly realize very well what it meant to Norway to have Sweden remain neutral. Thanks to her position outside the conflict, Sweden could serve as a place of refuge and as a link between the Norwegian home front and the Norwegians abroad. Nor do we

forget that she also extended to us magnificent relief."

IN THE LAST TWO YEARS Sweden has sent to the war ravaged countries in Europe over 400,000 tons of food, valued at 170 million kronor (about \$42,500,000). Finland has received 250,000 tons, Norway 130,000 tons and the Netherlands 15,000 tons. This does not include the feeding of Norwegian children in Norway, nor gift packages sent to private persons. When the Swedish Norway Relief was at its height, about 300,000 children and old men and women received daily meals.

The food centers of the Swedish Red Cross and the Swedish Save-the-Children Federation have expanded their relief activities on behalf of children in Central Europe and will now include the feeding of 16,500 children in Berlin, of whom 9,000 are in the Russian sector, 3,500 each in the American and British sectors, and 4,000 in the French. Since February 4, the Save-the-Children Federation has fed 13,000 children in Vienna and will now provide meals for twice that number. Eventually, a total of 64,000 children will be fed from 50 different depots. This work is paid for by the Swedish Government.

THE RUSSIAN ANNOUNCEMENT that Soviet troops will be withdrawn from the Danish island of Bornholm was greeted with satisfaction by the Swedish press. The Liberal *Dagens Nyheter* called it a clever stroke by the Soviet Union. The chief Labor organ, *Morgon-Tidningen*, pointed out that the evacuation order was a generous gesture which will be hailed with great pleasure all over Scandinavia.

AN EXHIBITION of 3,000 American books was held in March in Stockholm under the auspices of the Sweden-America Foundation and the USIBA (United States International Book Association). It comprised both text books and fiction

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published within the last few years in the United States. J. Sigfrid Edström, president of the Foundation, opened the exhibition in the presence of Crown Prince Gustaf Adolf, Crown Princess Louise, Hershel V. Johnson, United States Minister to Sweden, and a large group of the specially invited. After two weeks the exhibition moved to Oslo. USIBA recently opened an office in Stockholm as headquarters for its northern European division. It is headed by Sidney Sulkin and its purpose is to give out information and to establish contact between publishers and writers in America and Sweden.

THE SWEDISH AIR CORPS will shortly be strengthened by two different types of jet-propelled fighter planes: British Vampires and planes of the Swedish J-21 model, which will be equipped with British Goblin power units, either imported or built in Sweden under license. They will be delivered by the de Havilland firm in England, and it is reported that the contract is one of the biggest ever received by the British aircraft industry. The actual number of planes has not yet been announced, but it is likely to suffice for establishing a Swedish wing. Specially trained personnel will be sent over from England to instruct pilots of the Swedish Air Corps.

THE GERMAN ASSETS in Sweden amounted to between 300 and 350 million kronor (\$75-85,000,000) on June 30, 1945, according to an official report issued in March. "This figure obviously is smaller than some people have been inclined to think," said Einar Modig, head of the Government agency administering the German assets in Sweden. "There is no reason to believe that money has been placed in Sweden to be used later for German purposes."

THE GOVERNMENT announced on March 8 that a bill proposing that Sweden is prepared to accept the responsibility of

membership in the UN was signed at a cabinet meeting in Stockholm on that day. Such a move was first forecast by Prime Minister Per Albin Hansson and Foreign Minister Östen Unden in a Government declaration at the opening of the fall session of the Riksdag, at which it was almost unanimously accepted.

General Helge Jung, Commander in Chief of all Swedish defense forces, in a statement to the Foreign Minister, advocated Sweden's adherence to the UN. He pointed out that neutrality cannot be combined with membership in the international security organization so long as this functions. In case of a conflict between major powers, Sweden's traditional neutrality can be preserved if it is supported by an armed might capable of defending the country against attack. Whether Sweden becomes a member of the security organization or not, the country's defense system must be kept at a high plane of efficiency, General Jung maintained.

THE INTERNATIONAL P.E.N. CLUB will hold its 17th congress in Stockholm from June 2 to 6. Invitations have been issued to some 40 P.E.N. Club centers all over the world, and about 300 delegates are expected to attend, in addition to a number of celebrated authors who have been invited as guests of honor. The program will include a reception at the Royal Palace in Stockholm for all participants, and a gala performance at the 18th century Drottningholm Palace Theatre.

TO SAVE GRAIN needed by the war-ravaged countries in Europe, the Swedish Government has decided to cut the bread and flour ration by about six percent. This will save 50,000 tons of wheat and 22,000 tons of rye which have already been purchased in America. The quantities of grain Sweden is giving up are placed at the disposal of the U.S. authorities and will be used for relief in Europe. Flour as well as bread have been rationed in Swed-

en since the fall of 1940. Other food articles still rationed are meat and pork, butter, cheese, and sugar.

TAGE ERLANDER, Swedish Minister of Cults and Education, has recommended that, beginning with next year, English become the first foreign language to be taught in Swedish schools. The Riksdag does not have to take any action in the matter. Eighty-five percent of the Swedish people share Mr. Erlander's view, a recent Gallup poll revealed.

IN CONNECTION WITH THE 85TH ANNIVERSARY OF PRINCE CARL, who recently resigned as President of the Swedish Red Cross after 40 years of service, a new royal medal was instituted by the King, to be awarded "a Swedish subject or a foreigner, who has been particularly conspicuous in national or international humanitarian relief work." Among the first to receive this award were Mrs. Elsa Brändström-Ulich, of Cambridge, Mass., who earned the name of "The Angel of Siberia" for her work among war prisoners during and after the First World War, and Dr. John Mott, of Orlando, Florida, President of the World's Committee of the Y.M.C.A.

PARAMOUNT AND FOX will send cameramen to Sweden this summer to record on color film how the Swedish people live and work and what they produce. James B. Shackelford, Paramount photographer, recently arrived in Stockholm to make twelve or fifteen films. He expects to stay in Sweden three or four months. In May two representatives of Twentieth Century-Fox Film Company will shoot scenes in Sweden as well as in Norway and Denmark—at least two films for each country. They are Earl Allbin and J. Storz. These pictures will be included in Fox Film's Movietone series.

DR. HERBERT SPENCER GASSER, winner of the 1944 Nobel Prize in Medicine

and Physiology and since 1935 head of the Rockefeller Institute in New York, has been made a member of the Swedish Royal Academy of Science.

A RADAR INSTALLATION, capable of achieving contact with the moon, is now being built in Gothenburg by the Chalmers Institute of Technology under the supervision of Professor Olof Rydbeck, an expert on tele-technical matters.

CARL LINDHAGEN, Mayor of the City of Stockholm from 1903 to 1930, died in the capital on March 11, at the age of 85. Born in 1860, he was a member of the Riksdag almost uninterruptedly from 1897 to 1940, first as a Liberal and later as a representative of the Labor Party. An indefatigable worker for the cause of international peace, he also sponsored many laws aimed at a closer cooperation between the Scandinavian countries.

ARCHBISHOP ERLING EIDEM of Upsala, Primate of the Swedish Church, has accepted an invitation to participate in the centennial celebration of the Swedish Lutheran Church in the United States. The invitation was extended by Dr. P. O. Bersell, President of the Augustana Synod, in Rock Island, Illinois, who visited Sweden some time ago. Dr. Eidem's visit is expected to last two weeks.

DURING THE WAR YEARS SWEDEN as a neutral was entrusted with no less than 111 commissions as a so-called Protective Power, looking after the interests of twenty-three countries. Since the end of the war Sweden has been relieved of a large number of these commissions. According to a recent report from the Foreign Office, the Swedish diplomatic service is, however, still acting as a Protective Power in one or more countries for the following eighteen nations: Argentina, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Denmark, Finland, Honduras, Iran, Ice-

land, Italy, Japan, China, Mexico, Holland, Norway, Rumania, and Hungary.

AMERICAN FILMS are by far the most popular in Sweden. Thus, in 1945, out of 307 new motion pictures shown, not less than 209 were made in the United States. Swedish film numbered 43, British 21, Russian 12, Danish 7, German 6, and French 5, while there was shown one picture each of Finnish, Italian, Mexican, and Swiss origin.

THE SWEDISH GOVERNMENT has received an invitation to participate in a city planning and housing exhibition in Paris to be held this year from May 31 to August 4. The French Government has expressed the hope that Sweden will be prominently represented, since Sweden is regarded as one of the foremost countries in these fields. The United States, Great Britain, Canada, and Switzerland have already accepted the invitation.

A PRECIOUS CARGO of two grams of radium, valued at more than \$50,000, recently arrived in Gothenburg from New York. This was the first consignment of radium received in Sweden from abroad since 1927. Including these two grams, Sweden is now in possession of between sixteen and seventeen grams of radium. This supply is divided between Sweden's three main centers for radium treatment, in Stockholm, Gothenburg, and Lund. Further imports from Canada and Belgium are expected.

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SCANDINAVIANS IN AMERICA

The American Swedish Historical Museum

Minister Herman Eriksson was guest of honor at a reception given by the Board of Governors of the American Swedish Historical Foundation, at the American Swedish Historical Museum, on Sunday afternoon, January 20. About 300 persons were present. They included not only Museum members, both in and out of Philadelphia, but many others prominent in the cultural and official life of the city.

The importance of the American Swedish Historical Museum in the life of that city of venerable museums, Philadelphia, has now been signalized by the election on March 26 of Miss Elizabeth Z. Swenson, Executive Secretary of the Museum, as Secretary and Treasurer of the Philadelphia Museum Council.

The Museum has acquired the collection of photographs which comprised the exhibition known as SWEDEN'S DEFENSE IN PICTURES, as a gift from the American-Swedish News Exchange. The group contains eighty-five mats and more than that number of pictures and is a photographic record of Sweden's defense preparations during the first years of World War II. The Exhibition was assembled and its American tour arranged by Holger Lundbergh.

Supper Party

On February 23rd, Mr. and Mrs. Johan H. Knudsen, Sustaining Associates of The American-Scandinavian Foundation, held a supper party for students from Norway, Denmark, and Sweden in their home, Forest Hills, L. I. The students were very warmly received and a most enjoyable time was had by all. Mr. and Mrs. Knudsen expressed joy and gratitude for being able to entertain them and thanked them for the wonderful work each had performed in his respective country during the war.

THE AMERICAN SCANDINAVIAN FOUNDATION

*For better intellectual relations between the American and Scandinavian peoples.
by means of an exchange of students, publications, and a Bureau of Information*

ESTABLISHED BY NIELS FOULSON, IN 1911

Trustees: Henry Goddard Leach, President; John A. Gade, William Hovgaard, G. Hilmer Lundbeck, Harold C. Urey, Vice Presidents; Hans Christian Sonne, Treasurer; Conrad Bergendoff, Robert Woods Bliss, E. A. Cappelen-Smith, Clifford Nickels Carver, James Creese, Harold S. Deming, Robert Herndon Fife, Halldor Hermannsson, Hamilton Holt, Edwin O. Holter, George N. Jeppson, Nils R. Johaneson, A. Sonnin Krebs, William W. Lawrence, John M. Morehead, Charles J. Rhoads, Georg Unger Vetlesen, Thomas J. Watson, Harald M. Westergaard. **Cooperating Bodies:** **Sweden**—Sverige-Amerika Stiftelsen, Grevturegatan 16, Stockholm, J. S. Edström, President; Östen Undén, A. F. Enström, and The Svedberg, Vice Presidents; Adèle Heilborn, Secretary; **Denmark**—Danmarks Amerikanske Selskab, Ny Kongensgade 4, Copenhagen K, Viggo Carstensen, President; Secretary, Mrs. Annette Dalgas Jerrild; Helge Petersen, H. C. Möller, Vice Presidents; Tage Langebæk, Treasurer; **Norway**—Norge-Amerika Fondet, Radhusgaten 23 B, Oslo, C. J. Hambro, President; Arne Kildal, Secretary; **Iceland**—Islensz-Ameriska Félagid, Reykjavik, Sigurdur Nordal, President; Ragnar Olafsson, Secretary. **Associates:** All who are in sympathy with the aims of the Foundation are invited to become Associates. **Regular Associates**, paying \$3.00 annually, receive the *REVIEW*. **Sustaining Associates**, paying \$10.00 annually, receive the *REVIEW* and *CLASSICS*. **Life Associates**, paying \$200.00 once for all, receive all publications.

Trustees' Meeting May 4

The spring meeting of the Trustees of The American-Scandinavian Foundation was held as usual in the Mahogany Room of the Harvard Club, New York City. In the absence of the President in Norway, Professor Harold Clayton Urey of the University of Chicago presided. The Trustees confirmed the appointment of ninety-five new Fellows from the Scandinavian countries since the last meeting and two American Fellows to Scandinavia. The Committee on Applications reported that American universities and colleges have offered to Scandinavian students recommended by the Foundation scholarships for the year 1946-1947 to an amount exceeding \$100,000. The Trustees confirmed the appointment of the following fifteen American Fellows for study in the Scandinavian countries 1946-1947, with stipends approximating \$26,000 and, in addition, one Special Student to Sweden:

American Fellows 1946-1947

REV. HOWARD ALBERT JOHNSON, University of California at Los Angeles, B.A. 1936; Protestant Episcopal Theological Seminary, Princeton, B.D. cum laude 1939; Graduate School, Princeton University, 1942 (interrupted by the

war); Curate, St. John's Church, Washington, D.C.; awarded the Carol and Hans Christian Sonne Fellowship, stipend \$2,000, for the study of Kierkegaard in Denmark.

LORIN JOHN MULLINS, University of California, Berkeley, Ph.D. 1940; Officer, U.S. Army; awarded a New York Chapter Fellowship, stipend \$2,000, to study Physiology in Denmark.

MARION LOUIS NIELSEN, Stanford University, Ph.D. 1945; college professor in foreign languages and literature; awarded the Frederik Lunning Fellowship, stipend \$1,000, to study Modern Literature in Denmark.

NORMA ELIZABETH ARNESEN, St. Olaf College, B.A. cum laude; Dean of Women, Augustana College, Sioux Falls, South Dakota; awarded a Frederic Schaefer Fellowship, stipend \$2,000, to study Sociology in Norway.

LAURENCE IRVING, Stanford, Ph.D. 1924; Professor of Biology, Swarthmore College; awarded a New York Chapter Fellowship, stipend \$500, to study Physiology in Norway.

NORMAN WILLIAM NORDSTRAND, St. Olaf College, B.A. 1933; Dean of Men

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Offers a Fellowship for the Months of July and August for a Boy from each of the Scandinavian Countries Selected by the American-Scandinavian Foundation

and Assistant Professor of English, St. Olaf College; awarded a Frederic Schaefer Fellowship, stipend \$2,000, to study Literature in Norway.

ROY MELVIN TOLLEFSON, University of Minnesota, B.A. in Political Science, B.S. in Education; Columbia University, A.M. in Public Law and Government, 1946; Student; awarded the Olaf Halvorson Fellowship, stipend \$2,500, to study Government in Norway.

CURTIS HOMER ELLIOTT, JR., Massachusetts Institute of Technology, S.M. in Chemical Engineering, 1946; Student; awarded the Justus P. Seeburg Fellowship, stipend \$2,000, to study Industrial Chemistry in Sweden.

VERNON WALTER HAHN, University of Minnesota, B.A. in Forestry; Duke University, M.F. degree; Soil Conservationist; awarded the Nils R. Johaneson Fellowship, stipend \$1,000, to study Forestry in Sweden.

ELLEN HULDA ELIZABETH JOHNSON, Oberlin College, M.A. 1935; Sorbonne,

Paris, 1935, Art; Harvard University Summer 1941, Art; University of Washington; Augustana College; course in Stockholm, 1938; Instructor in Fine Arts and Art Librarian, Oberlin College; awarded the Albert I. Appleton-Robert Woods Bliss Fellowship, stipend \$2,000, to study Scandinavian Art in Sweden.

VIRGIL LEROY KOENIG, University of Colorado, Ph.D. 1940; Department of Physical Chemistry, Harvard Medical School, summer 1942; Research Biochemist, Armour Laboratories; awarded the John G. Bergquist Fellowship in Chemistry, stipend \$2,500, to study Chemistry in Sweden.

LT. GEORGE ALBERT LLANO, Columbia University, M.A. 1939; teacher, agronomist, biologist (Federal), forester, naturalist; aviation physiologist, Army Air Corps; awarded the Electrolux Corporation-Ernest Mattsson Fellowship, stipend \$1,030.26, to study Lichenology in Sweden.

FORDE ANDERSON McIVER, Medical College of the State of South Carolina, M.D. 1942; Wisconsin General Hospital, rotating internship for one year and three year surgical residency (to be completed July 1, 1946); awarded the Oscar A. Lenna Fellowship, stipend \$1,250, to study Surgery in Sweden.

ERIK WAHLGREN, University of Chicago, Ph.D. 1938; Chicago Folklore Prize 1938; Professor of Scandinavian; awarded the Carl U. Ackerlind-Bror Dahlberg-A. E. Paulson-Edward Magnuson Fellowship, stipend \$1,550, to study Scandinavian Philology in Sweden.

ELEANOR ELIZABETH WESTERVELT, Women's College, University of North Carolina, B.S. in Physical Education 1937; Richmond Professional Institute College of William and Mary, certificate in Physical Therapy, 1940; Physical Therapy Technician; awarded the John Motley Morehead Fellowship, stipend \$2,000, to study Kinesiology in Sweden.

SPECIAL STUDENT:

THOMAS NORD WIKSTROM, Morning-side College, Sioux City, Iowa (to receive Bachelor of School Music, June 1946); awarded the G. Hilmer Lundbeck scholarship, stipend \$1,000, to study music in Sweden.

Former Fellows

MR. AXEL R. HALL, Swedish Fellow to this country in 1928 for the study of highway construction, returned to the United States several months ago for his firm in Stockholm, Skånska Cementgjuteriet. He has since departed for Sweden.

Dr. SUNE BERGSTRÖM of the Caroline Institute in Stockholm has been awarded funds from the Swedish National Association against Tuberculosis at the suggestion of the Crown Prince for further studies in this country. Dr. Bergström studied biochemistry and sterines at Columbia University and the Squibb Institute in 1940 and 1941.

Mr. NIELS PLUM, a Fellow of the

Foundation from Denmark in 1938, has been given a stipend for another tour in this country and is presently studying theoretical and practical methods in modern concreting.

MR. HARRISON CLARK, JR., American Fellow to Sweden in 1936-1937, who served as Lieut. Commander with the Office of Naval Intelligence in the U.S. Navy from 1941 to 1945, has been appointed Regional Specialist for Sweden, Finland, and Iceland in the Office of International Information and Cultural Affairs, State Department.

DR. KAJ AAGE STRAND, Research Astronomer and Associate Professor at Swarthmore College, after his return from Sweden, Denmark, and the Netherlands where he plans to visit many observatories, will join the staff of the University of Chicago as Associate Professor and Astronomer at the Yerkes Observatory. He will be in charge of the 40-inch Yerkes refractor, the world's largest refracting telescope, to continue the study of the motions in double stars and allied fields of astronomy. Dr. Strand was a Fellow of the Foundation from Denmark in 1938-1939.

DR. HELGE LARSEN, Fellow from Denmark 1943-1944, and a member of the curatorial staff of the Danish National Museum in Copenhagen, has recently returned to Denmark. Prior to his appointment as a Fellow of the Foundation, he did considerable archaeological work in Greenland, Point Hope, Alaska, and the University of Alaska in Fairbanks on funds partly supplied by the American Museum of Natural History. In 1942, he returned to the American Museum of Natural History to work over his collections and prepare numerous reports. In 1943 he was appointed to the curatorial staff of the American Museum and remained in this position until his departure to Denmark. While on this staff, he again visited Alaska and made excavations at Dutch Harbor in the Aleutian

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Islands. Dr. Larsen's investigations have been remarkably successful in contributing both highly important new facts and new interpretations bearing on the long vexing Eskimo problem.

Present Fellows

DR. BØRGE HEIBERG, Assistant Surgeon of the Finsen Institute and Radium Therapy Center in Copenhagen, arrived in this country on March 25th. He has been visiting The International Cancer Research Foundation in Philadelphia, The National Cancer Institute in Bethesda, and the Memorial Hospital, Cancer Clinic, in New York City for the purpose of compiling valuable information on cancer treatment in this country.

MISS KERSTIN HANE and MR. KARL-ANDERS WOLLTER of Sweden are busy pursuing their studies at Valparaiso University in Valparaiso, Indiana, where they have been awarded substantial scholarships.

MR. and MRS. FRØYSTEIN WEDERVANG arrived from Norway on March 6th at Newport News. Mr. Wedervang, who obtained his Master's Degree in Economics at the University in Oslo, is gathering data for his Doctor's Degree in this country. He has been visiting the Schools of Business at Harvard University, Columbia University, the University of Chicago, Northwestern University, and, in addition, the Tennessee Valley Authority, and the Office of Price Administration in Washington. Mrs. Wedervang will resume her studies in the fall of this year.

MR. ANDERS ROLL, Civil Engineer from the Royal Technical Institute of Stockholm, has been studying the field of electronics with General Electric Company, Radio Corporation of America, Bell Telephone Laboratory, Harvard University, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and numerous radio engineering concerns.

MR. PER ØISANG and MR. ROLF KAARE HASNER of Norway have been granted generous scholarships in Illinois. Mr.

Øisang is studying Journalism at Northwestern University in Evanston, Illinois, and Mr. Hasner is studying Organization at the University of Chicago.

The first of five Tronstad Fellows from Norway has arrived. He is MR. PER RØED presently studying Engineering at the Worcester Polytechnic Institute in Worcester, Mass. Mr. Røed has an unusual record with the Norwegian Resistance Forces. He had charge of 200 men and most of their work was devoted to railroad sabotage in which his group accounted for eighty train derailments. He later headed a group which acted as official bodyguard to the King. Other Tronstad Fellows who expect to commence studies this fall are *Tore Gjelsvik*, *Thor Viton*, *Haakon Bingen*, and *Rolv Ø. Enge*.

ERIK LEXOW from Otto Treider's Commercial School in Norway is studying Business Administration at Bryant College in Providence, Rhode Island.

MR. OLE MATHISEN, graduate of the University of Oslo, arrived in Baltimore, Maryland, on February 10th. Before beginning his studies in Ichthyology at the University of Washington, Mr. Mathisen visited the New York State Conservation Department and the Department of Interior in Washington, D.C.

On March 9th, MISS METTE GRAFF and MR. WALTER CLIFFORD JOHNSON, both students in the Library School of the University of Michigan, were married in Ann Arbor, Michigan. Mr. and Mrs. Johnson did considerable work in the Fredrikstad and Deichmann Libraries in Norway.

DR. and MRS. INGVAR ELOF JULLANDER arrived from Sweden on February 12th. Dr. Jullander was appointed "docent" in Chemistry at the University of Uppsala in October, 1945 and has been conducting extensive research work in Chemistry at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in Cambridge, Mass.

DR. GUNNAR VON BAHR, Associate Professor at the University of Uppsala

and consulting Ophthalmologist at St. Erik's Hospital in Stockholm, is studying Ophthalmology with Johns Hopkins Hospital in Baltimore, Northwestern University, the Mayo Clinic, Dartmouth Medical School, the Massachusetts Eye and Ear Infirmary, etc.

MR. TOR NIELSEN, of the University of Oslo, is studying the pulp and paper industry in this country; MR. TOR SKOGSTAD of the Norwegian Technical Institute, a student of Civil Engineering at the University of Wisconsin; and MR. JAN URDAL of the University of Oslo, a student of Mechanical Engineering at the University of Wisconsin, arrived on March 2nd, on the MS *Havmann*.

DR. NIELS NIELSEN, Professor of Geography at the University of Copenhagen, arrived in March, appointed by the Danish Government to renew associations with many universities and colleges in this country. Professor Nielsen is also a member of the Royal Danish Academy and Secretary General of the Royal Danish Geographical Society.

The following Fellows have recently arrived in this country: MR. NILS JUEL BLIX of Norway, a student of Business Management and Shipping; MR. CARL EDWARD TORP of Norway, studying the latest progress of the American iron and steel foundries and steel mills; MR. HERBERT M. C. MOGENSEN of Denmark, Business Administration and Management at the University of Southern California; MR. BENGT FRIEDMAN of Sweden, a student of Gemology with the American Gemological Institute in Los Angeles; MRS. MARGARETA STÅLHANDSKE of Sweden, Department of English, Yale University; MR. ERIK OLOF SUNDSTROM of Sweden, research student in Metallurgy at M. I. T.

John Motley Morehead

A Trustee of the Foundation, in memory of his wife, Mrs. Genevieve B. Morehead, has presented his alma mater, the

University of North Carolina, with a Planetarium, the sixth in the nation and the only one owned by a university. The Gallery of the Planetarium will receive the late Mrs. Morehead's magnificent collection of paintings, porcelain, glass, lace, and other objects of art, which include part of the famous collection of the "Swedish Match King," Ivar Kreuger.

Mr. Morehead contributes to the Foundation Fellowships for graduates of North Carolina to study in Sweden where he was formerly U.S. Minister.

Norway-America Foundation

Early this year an association was formed in Norway by former fellows of Norge-Amerika-Fondet. The association (*Norge-Amerika-Fondets stipendiatforening*) has set down as its aim to support the activities of Fondet by obtaining donations for new fellowships, by counseling students going to America as well as by spreading general information about the United States.

All fellows, including honorary fellows, who have completed their studies in America under the auspices of Norge-Amerika-Fondet and the American-Scandinavian Foundation are eligible for membership in this organization. It corresponds to "FFF" (Former Fellows Fund) in the United States.

Sweden-America Foundation

Sverige-Amerika Stiftelsen has available this year \$37,000.00 in stipends for Fellows for study in America under the auspices of The American-Scandinavian Foundation. Some thirty appointments have been announced. The names of the Fellows from Sweden will appear in the 1946 Annual Report of The American-Scandinavian Foundation.

Augustana Chapter

The Augustana Chapter of The American-Scandinavian Foundation had a very unusual program on February 6th. Dr.

O. N. Olson, official historian of the Augustana Synod, gave a demonstrated talk on "Arts and Crafts of the Pioneers." He stressed the fact that the State of Illinois considered these early crafts and customs important enough to set aside the Old Bishop Hill Colony section as a State park. In presenting vivid pictures of the life of the pioneers, Dr. Olson read extensively from Danbury, 1847, describing a group in Swede Point (Madrid), Iowa. He included a portion from a translation of Fredrika Bremer's "America in the Fifties" picturing the delightful family and community life in the Pine Lake Settlement in Wisconsin. By way of illustrating the religious art of the time, the speaker showed an original sketch of an altar painting from Sweden. The picture is of historical interest to the Augustana Synod. When O. C. T. Andren was pastor in the Assarum parish, Blekinge, Sweden, an artist, Bengt Nordenberg, a son of that congregation, made a sketch which he later painted as an altar piece in the church. This original sketch he presented to pastor Andren. Dr. Olson received the picture for the Augustana Seminary from one of the sons of the pastor, Mr. Fritz Andren. It now hangs in the Augustana Seminary Library. Many implements of the pioneers were shown. Dr. Olson concluded his presentation by playing a hymn on a Psalmodicon which belonged to his father.

New York Chapter

The New York Chapter participated in a farewell dinner for Consul General and Madame Georg Bech of Denmark on the Starlight Roof of The Waldorf-Astoria Hotel on March 19th. Lauritz Melchior

of The Metropolitan Opera sang a song dedicated to Consul General Bech by a Danish poet. Among the speakers were His Excellency Minister Henrik de Kauffmann of Denmark, Consul General Rolf Christensen, Mr. Henry Goddard Leach, Mr. C. H. W. Hasselriis, The Rev. Alfred Th. Dorf, and Mrs. de Neergaard Rove. Mr. Christian F. Zoylner was toastmaster.

On April 23rd the Chapter gave the members an opportunity to meet the new Danish and Swedish Consuls General (Hans Henning Schroeder and Lennart Nylander) and their wives, at Sherry's. Mr. John V. Hansen presented a film (Denmark in color).

Seattle Chapter

The Nominating Committee of the Seattle Chapter met on February 22nd, and elected the following officers: President, Professor E. J. Vickner; Executive Secretary, Professor Sverre Arestad; Vice Presidents, Dr. Edward G. Cox, Dr. L. Frolund, Mrs. Jacobina Johnson, Mr. Henry Isaacson, and Mr. M. O. Sylliaasen; Treasurer, Dr. Andrew Hilén; Recording Secretary, Mrs. M. S. Johnson; Program Chairman, Mrs. S. K. Winther.

The Chapter will hold meetings six times a year at two month intervals. The Ames Room, Parrington Hall, on the University of Washington Campus, will be used for all meetings. Here there are facilities for serving refreshments, and the atmosphere is generally inviting. The Executive Secretary writes that the Chapter is again a going concern and anticipates a large number of new recruits in the near future.



THE MASTER BUILDER

Henrik Ibsen, a Study in Art and Personality, by Theodore Jorgenson. *St. Olaf College Press*. 550 pages. 1945. Price \$3.50.

When, forty years after his death, we again look towards him, we find that the arresting thing about the creator who was Henrik Ibsen is his maturity: it was tremendously in evidence in him when at the age of twenty six he wrote *LADY INGER OF ØSTRAAT* and it was in evidence when at the age of seventy one (but he was an exhausted man then) he wrote *WHEN WE DEAD AWAKEN*. Who else among his artist contemporaries shows a maturity equal to his? Tolstoy can be named for the same quality. But Ibsen's work is more fascinating than Tolstoy's: Ibsen is a dramatist, and drama (as distinct from play-making) represents a conquest of the material on a higher level than narrative writing does: a mind not only of high imaginative power but of high power of ordering has to be apparent: structure itself becomes potent. In the history of literature there are few dramatic masterpieces.

Ibsen's plays were revolutionary but they were not experimental: from the first time we know him he was too well instructed a dramatist to give us what was experimental. He did not ask for revolving stages, for masks, for narrator or chorus, for a curtain that descends every ten minutes, for a cast of forty persons (but *THE PRETENDERS*, *THE VIKINGS* have large casts). He wrote plays that a provincial theatre could put on. But he was a great innovator, one of the greatest in the history of the theatre, and his innovations had not to do with what was external but with what could be integrated with the characters and the action. He showed in the plays that began with *A DOLL'S HOUSE* the people of the neighbourhood in three dimensions while unfolding the drama that was inherent in their lives; no character, nay, no characteristic was redundant, no sentence in what they said to each other anything under a dramatic potential. These were masterly things to have done in the theatre, but Henrik Ibsen, exceeded them. His people's lives were carried backward as we watched and listened, and the retrospect gave a drama beyond the present drama and redoubled the force of the action. And while the dramatist made us more and more familiar with his people he augmented dramatic tension and dramatic dynamics. This was not all that he did in the theatre: he embodied a symbol that gave poetry and universality to the action,

lifting it above the locality that the people lived in and above the period whose dresses they wore—the wild duck in the garret, the pistols that Hedda Gabler entertained herself with, to mention two instances. His symbols were intrinsic; they never gave the effect of being intentional. It will be long before such an artist appears again in that playground of the showman and the machinist, the stage.

He was fortunate in the training he went through. A young poet with an interest in the art of painting, he was given a job in a small-town theatre at the age of twenty. In obscurity he learnt the other side of playwriting—what can and cannot be said, what can and cannot be done on a stage. There were no stars to bring about distortion in the designs he had to form. What he learnt he learnt in obscurity, that is to say with no outside veils to distract him. Those six years of apprenticeship when he wore shabby clothes and had few acquaintances were the making of that rare artist, a great dramatist.

He was fortunate, too, in his period. There was a national revival in his country, a movement similar to that which took place later in another small country, Ireland, which had the effect of leading him and others to look deep into the national soul and so discover new themes.

Ibsen left very little comment on his approach to his work. One thing he said, however, is illuminating. "To see and record adequately what one has seen—that is the whole of writing." The man who deals with a public or an audience, the dramatist or the orator (they have a great deal in common) has a compelling method when he is able to visualize and to hold the things visualized in his mind. This is more than a method—it is sight leading to insight. Ibsen's characters and the action they are part of, being strongly seen by him are strongly seen by his audience; they are made to take notice; they are made alert. This dramatist was a man of eyesight—his attempts at painting show this—and he trained himself to use his eyesight: for one who has to compel his audience to follow the significant movements before them, this was a profitable training.

Theodore Jorgenson's *HENRIK IBSEN, A STUDY IN ART AND PERSONALITY*, is not a biography of Ibsen, for very little of his personal life is set down in it. What this study of art and personality mainly gives us are the circumstances out of which each of the dramas came, the ideas that pressed upon the dramatist at the time of their inception, the significance of the theme developed in each. The personal life is barely sketched, but what is touched on is revealing: the bankruptcy of his father and the family descent socially, the fact that at nineteen Ibsen had an illegitimate child by a servant girl. The biography of Henrik Ibsen has still to be written: what we are given in this book are the fundamental patterns of his mind. Ibsen, Theodore Jorgenson shows

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us, is always concerned with bridging "that strange gap in human experience, the chasm between what we are and what we desire to be." In his mind is an imperative to bore—

deeper and deeper into the hard questions and difficult problems of human life. When he starts writing upon a particular subject he rarely exhausts it in one drama, but turns it over and approaches the matter from another angle in the subsequent work. Examples of this duality may be found in two complementary plays, *BRAND* and *PEER GYNT*. *EMPEROR AND GALILEAN* are really two plays, joined in the same fashion. *THE LEAGUE OF YOUTH* is the front of the medal of which *PILLARS OF SOCIETY* is the reverse.

Ibsen's mind, then, was dialectical. The necessity for truth in social relations that was the theme of *AN ENEMY OF THE PEOPLE* is given its counterpart in *THE WILD DUCK* where the danger of presenting the bill for absolute idealism is underscored.

Theodore Jorgenson recognizes an affinity between this pattern in Ibsen's mind and Hegel's dialectic: the dramatist was familiar with the philosopher's thesis, antithesis and synthesis. For Ibsen the synthesis that would include the thesis and antithesis was the Third Kingdom of which Maximus the Mystic speaks to the Emperor Julian, the kingdom which would include both Hellenism and Christianity. It is towards this Third, this mystical Kingdom, that the frustrated Rubek and Irene turn in the final play, *WHEN WE DEAD AWAKEN*.

This book will revive our interest in the great Northern master, bringing us back some of the excitement that such titles as *THE MASTER BUILDER*, *HEDDA GABLER*, *THE WILD DUCK*, since they signified openings into a world of new and intense experience, roused in us. It presents the great dramatist in a fuller light. When his social plays were first given to Europe there was a tendency to regard them as problem plays of a higher kind—the problem of woman's place in social and political life, the problem of heredity, the problem of the functionless woman and so on. But Ibsen's dramas, as Theodore Jorgenson shows, not being static, cannot be kept within such boundaries: they are dynamic and dialectical, and the force in them carries them into our time and beyond. The uniting of what the author of this study calls "the love life and the labor life" is really the theme of all of Ibsen's great dramas. Perhaps the incarnation of an exceptional man or woman's master idea in a warm human life can only be in the Third Kingdom that he himself prophesied. At the end of his days he too seems to have felt that the severe discipline which he gave himself and which enabled him to give us *BRAND*, *PEER GYNT*, *EMPEROR AND GALILEAN* (which he regarded as the work which justified him), *GHOSTS*, *THE MASTER BUILDER*, *HEDDA GABLER*, *JOHN GABRIEL BORKMAN*, had left him outside the life of the sense and the affections. "When we dead awaken we find that we have never lived" is the cry that comes to us at the end of his days.

HENRIK IBSEN, A STUDY IN ART AND PERSONALITY is an exhaustive treatment of a great subject. The writing in it is somewhat on the

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Though Icelandic is his principal source, the editor has drawn upon no less than fifteen languages, among them Old Irish, Greek, Latin, Russian, and Arabic. While many of these translations have been previously published, certain of them appear in this book for the first time.

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ponderous side, and the first chapter "The Personal Self" is a dissertation which could have been left out without any loss. But when this is said, it must be said, too, that the great artist who so often strove with the impossible is worthily treated in this patient and laborious study. We realize again that Ibsen's plays were the plays of a seer as well as of a greatly instructed dramatist. "To see and record adequately what one sees—that is the whole of writing." He saw surely and he recorded what he saw. And his vision and his labor brought him to seership.

PADRAIC COLUM

The Saga of Thorgils and Hafliði (Þorgils saga ok Hafliða). Edited with an Introduction and Notes by Halldór Hermannsson. Ithaca, N.Y. Cornell University Press. 1945. Price \$2.00.

In this thirty-first volume of his annual *Islandica* Professor Hermannsson gives us the first separate edition of a saga which occupies a special place in Icelandic literary history.

The Saga of Thorgils and Hafliði is, in fact, the first of the sagas of the Icelanders dealing with events not from Iceland heroic age, the Saga Age (*sögu-öldin*), but from the comparatively recent past of the 12th century. As such it forms the overture to the stories dealing with the contemporary history of the troubled *Sturlunga-öld*, and has, since the formation of the famous *Sturlunga* collection about 1300, always been treated and edited as a part of that collection, and most recently by Kálund in his *Sturlunga saga I*, Copenhagen 1906-11.

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This survey, written in Professor Hermannsson's customary easy and lucid style, contains certain things that no Norse scholar can afford to overlook. Such are for instance his original and plausible suggestions of circumstances that would have given to Ari the Learned the necessary impulse to write the unique geographical work *Landnáma*.

In the latter part of the introduction Professor Hermannsson deals with the origin of our saga in a narrower sense, pointing out the probable carriers of the tradition embodied in it and suggesting a family from which the author might have been drawn.

The text has normalized orthography, making it easier for beginners. The notes, mostly on realia, not least so legal matters, are excellent.

With the help of G. T. Zoega's *Old Icelandic Dictionary* (Oxford Univ. Press), this book as well as the previous editions of the *Book of the Icelanders* (*Islandica* xx) and the *Vinland Sagas* (*Islandica* xxx) might profitably be used as textbooks for advanced Icelandic (Old Norse) classes in American Universities.

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BOOK NOTES

It is a happy augury that, more and more, learned publications in the Scandinavian languages contain summaries in English instead of German. This is true of *Faeroensia I* by H. Grüner-Nielsen (Munksgaard, Copenhagen 1945, Price \$2.00). The Faeröe Islands are a Scandinavian area less known to our world than even the remote islands of Polynesia. The present volume is a technical treatise on the music of the Faerö ballads. Ballads are still danced and sung on those isolated islands, as well as in assemblies of the Faeröese in Copenhagen.

"Just as the sea in regular rhythm breaks heavily on the rocks and then recedes always singing the same song, thus also the continuous recital of the ballad comes rolling in, constantly interrupted by the monotonous refrain. This half dark room where the mild yellow light from a train-oil lamp falls on hardened men's features and delicate girlish cheeks, this wild chorus from the shouting throats—that is the Faeröes, the darkness, the breakers, the storm. It is the violence and at the same time the strange intimacy, it is the powerful epical and bashful lyrical note which it has been the cultural achievement of the Faeröese to preserve in an ancient garb down to our day."

Books in the Scandinavian original are rarely recorded in this column, but exception must be made for *De Gjorde Norge Større* by Arne Kildal (Grieg, 1945, Price \$2.00). This book, written for youth, relates the achievement of Norwegians in foreign lands from the beginning of the nineteenth century to the world war, from Cleng Peerson "Emigration's Father" to Andreas N. Rygg, sponsor of American Relief for Norway. The author, formerly Librarian of Bergen, has since 1919 been Secretary of Norge-Amerika Fondet, representing The American-Scandinavian Foundation in Norway.

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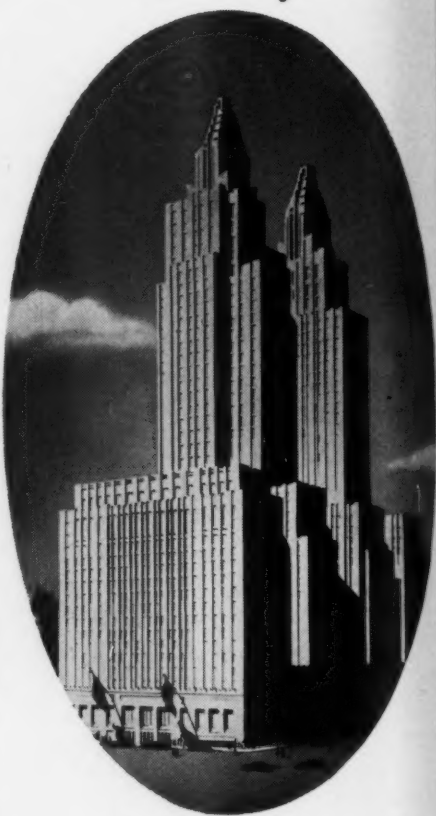
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